

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

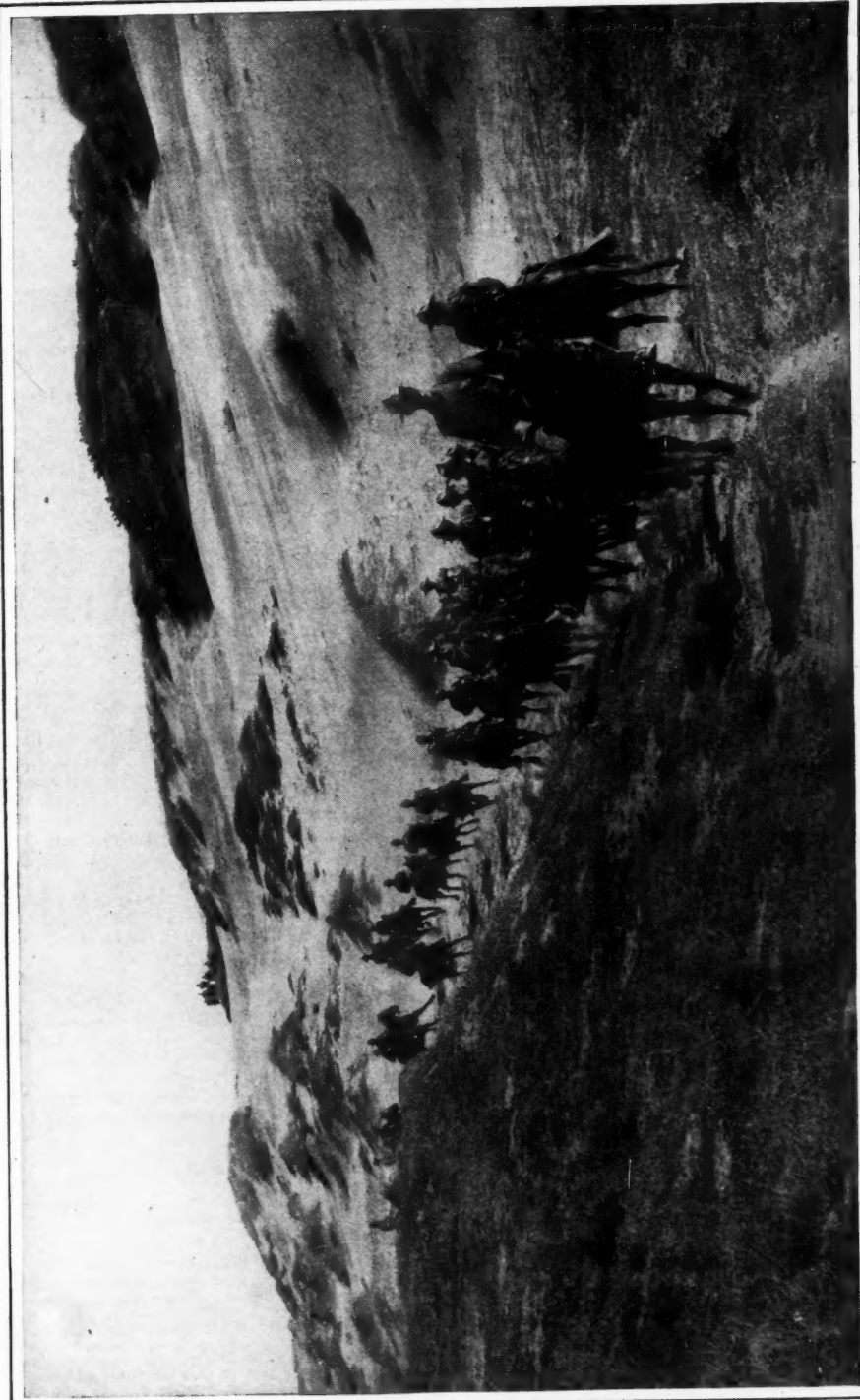
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AMERICAN CAVALRY ON THE MARCH IN THE MEXICAN BORDER REGION



# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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## THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*A Month of Sensations*

With the Mexican expedition following the submarine brain-storm in Congress, the sensational newspapers found more opportunity for hysterical headlines in the first half of March than at any time since the sinking of the *Lusitania*. As March began, they were chiefly agitated over relations with Germany on account of a new submarine policy, this excitement having been produced by reports that the Administration and Congress were in a controversy over the question of passengers on armed ships. The wave of popular emotion that had accompanied the alarmist propaganda tour for "preparedness" had harmlessly subsided. New sensations had been aroused by such events as Mr. Garrison's abrupt retirement from the cabinet, and Mr. Root's staggering philippic against the policies of the party now in power.

*Submarines and Armed Ships*

We had been told in cheerful bulletins that all lingering phases of the diplomatic controversy over the *Lusitania* had been settled. The announcement had been reassuring, and the country felt relieved. Associated with that announcement of good understanding with Germany was the dictum of the Administration to the Allies that their merchant ships ought not to carry defensive armament against submarines. Germany, assuming the attitude of response to the President's views as an umpire upon what seemed to him "fair play" in the U-boat game, declared that she would put into practise, after March 1, the principle that armed merchant ships have the character of public vessels or auxiliary cruisers, and are not to be warned before attack. Congress showed a strong disposition to accept—as practical common sense, if not as international law—the views that had been promulgated by our own Administration and that had thus been adopted for practical purposes by Germany.

Suddenly and swiftly, in a manner that nobody has yet been quite able to understand, the Administration and Congress were locking horns with one another with such intensity of emotion as is not witnessed at Washington more than one or twice in a lifetime.

*Villa Brings a New Thrill*

Congress had taken the Administration's view, only in a much milder form than had been officially promulgated. The Administration itself was represented as in a mood of heroism untouched by expediency. It was declared in some quarters to be ready for war with all the world if need be, in defense of the abstract right of an American to travel on the armed merchantmen of belligerents. Never were issues so jockeyed and so muddled as were those that finally came to a vote in the early days of March. Of all this we shall say more in subsequent pages—though chiefly for the benefit of readers of our bound volumes in future years. For, already, this intense struggle, in which the President was recorded as having won a decisive victory over his own Congress, was wholly forgotten within one short week. A new sensation had come along in its turn. In the early morning of March 9, a body of Mexican bandits, or irregular soldiers, led by Francisco Villa, crossed the line into New Mexico and made an attack upon the little town of Columbus. This town was one of more than forty points along the boundary line between the United States and Mexico which formed headquarters or centers for detachments of the 19,000 soldiers of our regular army distributed to protect the scattered border communities of Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas from the danger of Mexican raids. The recognition of General Carranza as head of a *de facto* government, by the United States and the principal South American countries, had greatly strengthened him as against his enemies; and Villa's loss of prestige and power

as a military leader had rendered him the more desperate and dangerous as a bandit in northern Mexico, breathing out insane threats against Americans and committing depredations through a considerable region, chiefly in the great state of Chihuahua, south of El Paso.

"Watchful  
Waiting"  
at an End]

Although the factional soldiery of Mexico had nominally gone over to Carranza in solid troops or regiments, the recognized *de facto* ruler had been lamentably unsuccessful in establishing order in the northern States. There had been some shocking murders of American mining men. Ranches and settlements had been looted. Villa's threats had been made in reckless disregard of consequences. He had started with his band of a few hundred men to attack Columbus, from a point so distant that nine or ten days of rapid, painful marching across the desert were required before he reached the boundary. That Villa was moving in that direction, with possible designs upon Columbus, was so well known that it was reported in New York and throughout the country two or three days before the attack on the morning of the 9th. For some reason, however, Columbus was not on guard. The soldiers who had been sent there for emergencies of this kind were taken by surprise. Seven troops of the Thirteenth Cavalry were stationed at that point. They soon drove the Mexicans away, and killed perhaps sixty of them, while nineteen or twenty Americans were killed, of whom half were soldiers and the others civilian residents of Columbus. American patience and endurance had reached the limit. There was no difference of opinion as to the duty of the United States to perform police work in the state of Chihuahua. Orders were immediately issued from Washington.

"Punitive"  
Measures

Meanwhile, however, the troopers of the Thirteenth Cavalry, about 250 in number, had followed Villa's fugitive horde several miles south of the border, where a stand had been made and where most of the casualties of the day had occurred. Villa's men had afterwards continued their retreat, and were supposed to be scattering in rough hill country where pursuit would be difficult. On the day following the raid, there was issued from the White House at Washington the following statement:

An adequate force will be sent at once in pursuit of Villa, with the single object of capturing

him and putting a stop to his forays. This can and will be done in entirely friendly aid of the constituted authorities in Mexico, and with scrupulous respect for the sovereignty of that republic.

There were widely varying forecasts of the nature and extent of the expedition which General Funston, as commander of the Southern Department, was instructed to organize and dispatch. The troops were scattered along hundreds of miles of boundary line as a border patrol. There was no considerable body of soldiers at any one point. The few regiments of our mobile army that were not in Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona were distributed from the Atlantic to the Pacific at a number of army posts, in accordance with a policy long outgrown.

Gen. Funston's  
Prudent  
Estimates

So great were the elements of uncertainty involved in any kind of invasion of Mexico, however restricted its avowed purpose might be, that General Funston demanded what—for this country—would seem a large body of troops. He thought that 30,000 men ought to be available, or even 50,000, in case of certain contingencies. Not only had General Funston been for some time in command along the Rio Grande, but it must be remembered that he was also in command of our forces at Vera Cruz. He knows Mexico's present condition of general anarchy, and from his experience in the Philippines he knows what it means for American soldiers to put down



LET US COME BACK WITH WHAT WE GO AFTER  
THIS TIME!  
From the New York Sun

disorder in an uncivilized region of impoverished populations that have taken to brigandage, and that are fanatically hostile to invaders. General Funston realized that Carranza's authority might prove to be nominal, rather than real, and that Obregon or some other commander might supersede him at almost any time. Carranza has recently stated that he now has an active army of 100,000 equipped and experienced men. It is not easy to guess how many men have had fighting experience in Mexico during the past five years, but there must be at least a quarter of a million; and many rifles have been imported, with numerous machine guns and much ammunition. Obviously we have no army at present that could cope with the forces of a united Mexico. And it has been repeatedly said for several years past that Mexicans would become united if under any pretext American troops intervened or invaded the country. General Funston was obliged to have in mind, therefore, the danger that all Mexican factions would turn against his troops.

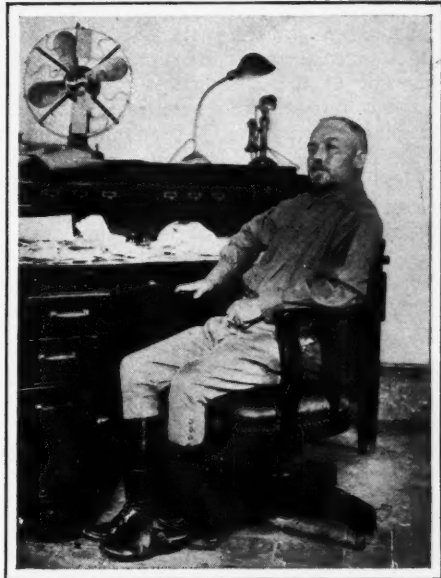
*Carranza  
Consulted*

At Washington every possible effort was bent towards saving Mexican pride. The hope was expressed, on behalf of the Administration, that Carranza's own forces would capture Villa and restore order, so that we might promptly withdraw and avoid the embarrassment of dealing with the arch-bandit in case of his having fallen into our hands. Car-



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THE PATH OF DUTY  
From the Chicago Tribune



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

MAJOR-GENERAL FREDERICK FUNSTON

(Who commands the American forces along the Mexican border, though Brigadier-General Pershing heads the "punitive expedition")

ranza had given his formal consent to the sending of American troops against Villa's raiders, on the condition that Mexican troops in pursuit of outlaws might have a corresponding privilege of crossing the line into the United States. This privilege was promptly accorded in a statement that was intended to save Carranza's prestige with his own people. It seems to have been generally forgotten that only a few months ago we had given Carranza the remarkable privilege of transporting his troops by rail on our side of the boundary, in order that he might relieve Mexican border posts that Villa's men were attacking, and the more effectively prosecute the war against opposing factions. It was, indeed, favors of this kind shown by our Administration to Carranza, after it had decided to "recognize" him, that had so infuriated Villa and embittered him toward Americans. He had previously been much more friendly to the United States than Carranza had been, and at one time President Wilson had been regarded as favoring Villa "against the field."

*Villa's  
Bitterness*

But when Carranza had become relatively strong, and we had, last October, accorded him his place as actual ruler, it will be remembered that we also authorized the shipment of arms

to Carranza and prohibited such shipment to Villa and all others, while also giving Carranza's men the right to operate by rail from our side of the line against their enemies. For a country that has adopted the policy of abstaining scrupulously from meddling in Mexican affairs, we have managed to accumulate an unprecedented amount of ill-will across the line. The Columbus raid of Villa's, therefore, was not the looting excursion of bandits, but rather the act of an infuriated body of Mexicans who intended to bring our country into conflict with their own. These men are chiefly of Indian blood, and their state of mind is not that of men of European ancestry, but much more like what American soldiers of the past had encountered in some of our numerous Indian wars. It is this bitterness of attitude towards the "Gringos," as they call the people of the United States, that constitutes the most difficult factor in the problem. Villa himself is a military leader of remarkable adroitness, and he has been surrounded by men who are well informed. Nobody knows better than these Mexican fighters just what our military situation is now and has been during recent years. Since Villa could have had no other object in striking at Columbus except to arouse the American people and precipitate an invasion of Mexico—at a moment when our army was small and scattered and could not be very quickly doubled in size—it was not to be expected that he was without further plans or designs. It was not then "brigandage," but war that Villa planned.

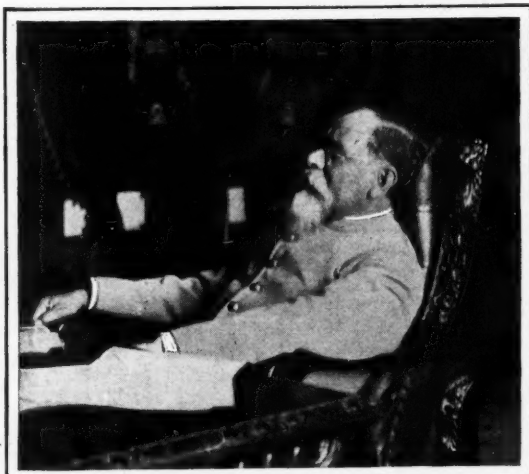
Force  
Alone  
Impressive

Thus it will be seen that our military men were right in taking the expedition seriously. Fighters like these Mexicans, who have been shedding blood for five years, are not thinking with awe about the latent power of the United States. They are impressed by actual military force, rather than by industrial resources. A very small expedition would have tempted attack not only by Villa's followers, but by Carranza's as well. On the other hand, the decision at Washington to trust the army, strengthen it, and let it proceed with respectable force was more likely to secure the coöperation of Carranza's men and to bring peace and order without much bloodshed. Under these circumstances the army was doing fairly

well to be ready, six days after the Columbus outrage, to send some six thousand troops, under General Pershing's command, southward into the Mexican wilderness. There was an attempt at a censorship of news regarding the plans of the expedition, with the result, as usual in such cases, that the Mexicans were informed through their ordinary sources of intelligence, while American newspaper readers had to be content with unofficial and inaccurate reports. It was merely idle, at the outset, to speculate upon the magnitude or the duration of our task in Northern Mexico.

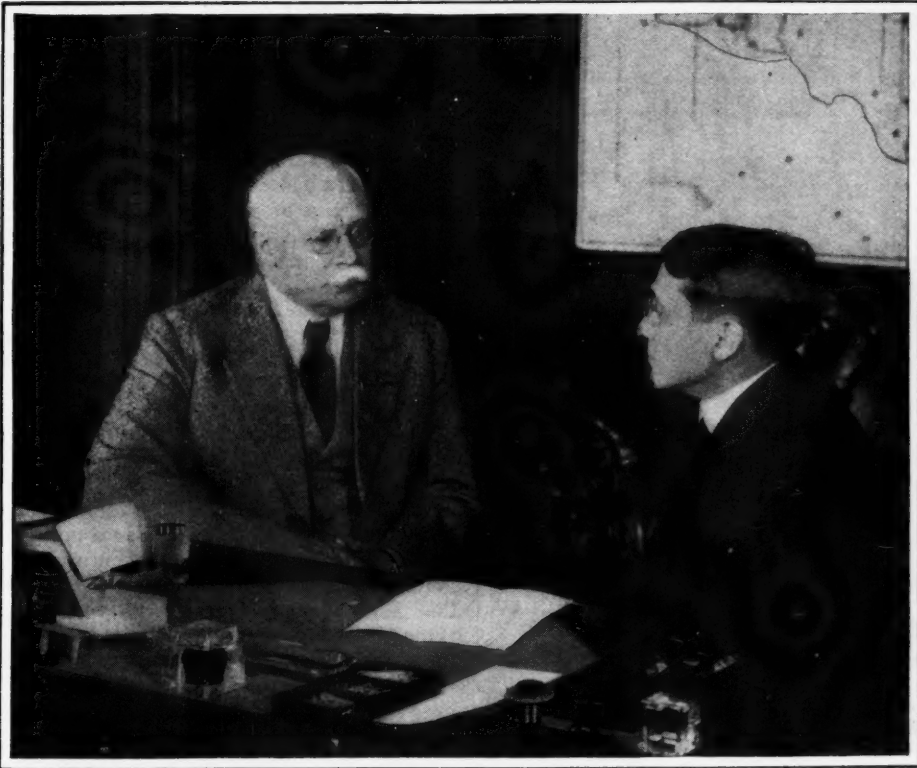
Railroad  
Transport

The advance of General Pershing's columns was more rapid than had been expected, and forced the difficult problem of transporting supplies for the expedition. It was hoped that permission could be obtained to utilize the Mexican railroads for this purpose; otherwise it would be folly for the American troops to push forward any considerable distance south of the point that they had reached after three days' marching (about 110 miles) from the boundary-line. The danger of loss and delay incident to the transporting of supplies by pack-train over hundreds of miles of desert might prove a more serious problem than the movement of the troops themselves. The Mexicans, on the other hand, accustomed to campaigning in a mountain country and carrying only a few days' provisions, might elude their pursuers indefinitely. It seemed imperative, therefore, that our army should use the railroad.



VENUSTIANO CARRANZA, THE RECOGNIZED HEAD OF THE MEXICAN GOVERNMENT—FROM A RECENT SNAPSHOT





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THE NEW SECRETARY OF WAR, MR. NEWTON D. BAKER (AT THE RIGHT), IN CONFERENCE WITH MAJOR-GEN. HUGH L. SCOTT, CHIEF OF STAFF OF THE ARMY AND ACTING SECRETARY FOLLOWING MR. GARRISON'S RESIGNATION

*Expanding the Army*

The authorized maximum of our standing army, under existing laws, has for some time been 100,000 men. It has not, however, been kept recruited up to that number. On March 14, five days after the Columbus raid, President Wilson and the cabinet decided to request Congress to authorize immediate recruiting to the extent of the maximum. The matter was stated to the House of Representatives by Mr. Hay, chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs, and within four minutes the House had taken action, one New York Socialist being the only member to object. The resolution was unanimously passed by the Senate on the following day. The actual army roll then amounted to 80,053 men. It was necessary to add 19,947 to make the full number of 100,000. Figures given to the press showed 14,775 coast defense troops, with 568 officers, who could not properly be taken away from their present posts. Soldiers to the aggregate number of about

25,000 were in the Philippines, Hawaii, Alaska, Porto Rico, and Panama. There were left in the United States 34,510 mobile troops, commanded by 1923 officers. Including regiments that were at once ordered to the Mexican border, there were about 25,000 soldiers in that region. The recruiting of approximately 20,000 more men would virtually double the force available for use in a situation like that in Northern Mexico.

*Another Secretary of War*

These events on our southern border gave a definite turn to the subject of "preparedness," which had gone quite stale at Washington. Congress had been in session three and a half months without having acted upon the army and navy proposals presented by the President in his annual message at the beginning of December. It was decided to give these questions the right of way, and to secure the adoption of some plan that would put the nation in better shape for



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HON. NEWTON D. BAKER, APPOINTED SECRETARY OF WAR BY THE PRESIDENT ON MARCH 7

defense. As it happened, the President had appointed a Secretary of War just two days before the Columbus occurrence, the post having been vacant for a month. The new Secretary is Mr. Newton D. Baker, of Cleveland, Ohio, for a number of years City Solicitor and afterwards Mayor. Mr. Baker is greatly esteemed among his Ohio neighbors as a man of high vision and an apostle of social justice. He is a good lawyer and an eloquent speaker. He has been regarded as opposed to the views of those who believe that the conditions of the world require the United States to make exceptional preparation for defense against some possible foe. He frankly avowed an entire lack of acquaintance with the work of his new office, while also declaring his devotion to President Wilson and readiness to subscribe to any view or policy of the President. Mr. Baker is, beyond doubt, a man of exceptional talents and high character, who will quickly adapt himself, as did Mr. Stimson, of New York, to the requirements of his position. It is reasonable in such cases of new men in high office not only to hope for the successful conduct of public business, but to expect it. Mr. Baker will not fail.

Mr. Hay &  
Army  
Bill

After passing the resolution approving of the expansion of the present army organization to its maximum of 100,000, the military committee of the House, through its chairman, Mr. Hay, of Virginia, presented the result of its planning for national defense on the larger scale. The first provision of this bill was an increase of the regular army in time of peace to 140,000. A regular-army reserve of 60,000 men was contemplated. The State troops, or National Guard, numbering now about 125,000 men, were more liberally subsidized than heretofore by this measure, and were expected to build up a militia reserve by the plan of two years' active service, with four additional years of enrollment. Mr. Hay was able to figure out more than a million trained men already available, through adding up the estimated numbers of those who have within a certain period been discharged from the regular army and those who have had some experience in the State militia, or in the colleges and schools that give military training. This, of course, is much better than nothing at all; but these men do not constitute a factor for defense until they are duly enrolled as reserves, organized into definite units, and brought together under their officers at stated intervals. This will remain to be worked out.

Broader  
Plans  
Needed

A common-sense system, whether as complete and universal as in other countries or not, would give us a strictly national body of partly trained citizen reserves large enough to constitute a formidable army on short notice in time of need, while costing the Government very little in time of peace. We have published much information from time to time regarding the Swiss and their system of universal training for national service, but the subject is so important that we are presenting it again this month. Mr. Huidekoper, whose article on the Swiss and Australian systems will be found beginning on page 449, is one of the most authoritative of our writers and students in the field of military history. He is the author of a notable book, published a few weeks ago, entitled "The Military Unpreparedness of the United States." Mr. Huidekoper's critical narrative carries us through all of our wars, from the Revolution to the present day, and analyzes every phase of the problem of armed preparation. It ought to be read by many thousands of our young men who must soon, in their turn, assume

the responsibility of conducting the affairs of the United States through another generation, and should know our history.

#### Senate Proposals

The Senate Committee's bill, as reported by Mr. Chamberlain, of Oregon, called for a larger immediate increase of the regular army than the House bill. It authorized a peace force of 178,000 men, to be recruited up to 250,000 in time of war. Many detailed provisions in the bill are commendable as improvements over the existing situation. The fundamental difficulty with the work of both committees lay in their failure to make broad deductions from the experience of the other countries of the world. We are perpetuating—while somewhat increasing—the type of regular standing army that no other country but England had retained until now, and that Great Britain has this year abandoned forever. The other part of our defense scheme is made up of the equally obsolete form of militia under State control, improperly named the National Guard. The States should have their constabulary for their own purposes of quelling riots and keeping the peace. The nation should have its body of several million young citizens organized as a reserve force, and it should maintain a large body of highly trained officers, whose most important duty in times of peace would be the disciplining of successive classes of young men coming up for their brief periods of instruction.

#### "Mobilizing Industries"

But what we most need in this country for purposes of preparation against some great possible emergency is a supply of materials. Wars have become largely a matter of engineering and manufacture. We need the coöperation of our manufacturers and engineers, under the leadership of men trained in the modern industrial world. This is the kind of preparation that thirty thousand members of the great engineering societies of the country are proposing to help secure, under the auspices and with the aid of the Administration. It is expected that the Naval Consulting Board will be as closely related to the army as to the navy, and become a National Council for Defense. Mr. Howard Coffin, as a member of the Consulting Board and chairman of the committee having to do with industrial production and organization, has taken the lead in a plan for securing the coöperation of thousands of industrial plants without delay in time of need. The tech-

nical difficulties in the way of the quick production of rifles, cartridges, shells for artillery, or any one of hundreds of other necessary articles or parts of articles needed for armies and navies are not dreamed of by the ordinary citizen; but they have been learned by many of our engineers and manufacturers who have tried to fill contracts for the European governments.



MR. HOWARD COFFIN (ON THE RIGHT) AND MR. W. S. GIFFORD, PLANNING THE ENGINEERS' CAMPAIGN FOR "INDUSTRIAL PREPAREDNESS"

#### Lessons of Current Experience

It is only now that some of the best of these concerns are beginning to make their first shipments, after having done their best for a year or a year and a half to become so completely equipped as to produce the necessary result. It is proposed by our engineers, under Mr. Coffin's lead, and by the leaders of certain national business and commercial organizations, to have our shops and factories carefully listed as to their capacities, and so prepared in time of peace that they could give the Government unlimited supplies in war time without the delays to which England and her allies have been subjected. We do not need large standing armies, but we need virile young men everywhere sufficiently trained to form a good citizen soldiery in war time. Nor do we need colossal supplies of munitions, heaped up in advance and probably never to be used. But we do need the demonstrated ability, in our machine-shops and manufactories, to produce on Government demand, without delay, exactly the articles of munition and equipment that are needed, and in quantities far beyond the capacity of any other country. The preparation of young men can come, for the most part, without public expense as a by-product of their education, or of their training period. As for the materials,

if we are not to have more than a million rifles in reserve and ready for use, we should have at least a hundred different establishments so prepared by the fact that they are already making *some* rifles for the Government each year, that they could make large quantities on short order if demanded.

*Shaping  
Naval Plans*

Army bills have had precedence over legislation for the navy. Meanwhile, however, the House Committee on Naval Affairs held hearings during February and March, soliciting the opinions and judgments of the chief officers of the navy. These gentlemen were unanimous in declaring that our navy should at once have larger and faster ships and many submarines, although they differed in matters of detail. There is a tendency to abandon the plan to construct huge submarines, and adopt a smaller type—which, however, will be considerably larger than those we now have. Admiral Fletcher declared that the Atlantic Fleet is in a satisfactory condition, and that the efficiency of the men meets every requirement, the marksmanship having improved materially within recent months. Rear-Admiral Blue, Chief of the Bureau of Navigation, asserted that the personnel of the navy—both officers and men—is better than at any time in its history. Admiral Winslow severely criticized the entire method of instructing officers. He thinks the younger officers have not had sufficient experience at sea, and those in the higher grades lack training and practise in the tasks which would be theirs in case of war. Rear-Admiral Knight, President of the War College, believes that the fleet is only 50 per cent. efficient through shortage of men, battle cruisers, and scout ships. Rear-Admiral Benson, Chief of Operations (a post recently created), gave the committee an account of current work in the way of "preparedness." Mobilization and organization plans have been worked out, while strategical and supply plans, for quick action, are being evolved. It was expected by Chairman Padgett that his committee would be ready to report a bill early in April, presumably in harmony with the Administration's proposal of a five-year construction program involving an expenditure of \$500,000,000.

*"Armed Ships"  
As an  
Issue*

As we remarked in our opening paragraphs, one sensation succeeded another in March, in such a way as to make it hard for the reader of the daily press to look back and keep in

mind the sequence of occurrences with anything like an intelligent perspective. At the opening of the month we were made to feel that the whole world had paused in suspense awaiting the result of the controversy at Washington regarding the status of American travelers on armed merchant ships. Many strange things have happened in our public life during the past three years; but nothing ever happened, perhaps, in all the history of diplomatic, executive, and Congressional action that was more bewildering in its twists and turns than this controversy about submarines and merchantmen. It was said to have ended in great victory for the President by virtue of votes taken in both houses of Congress. The situation can only be understood by taking it up open-mindedly in the order of occurrences.

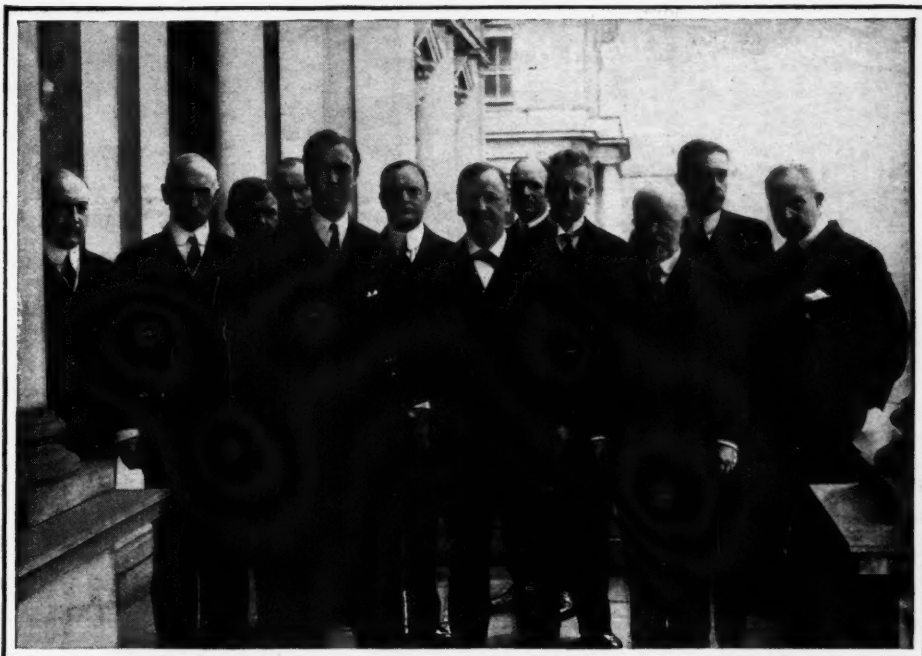
*"Lusitania"  
Differences  
Reconciled*

In the early days of February it was authoritatively stated at Washington that our Government had finally reached an agreement with Germany on all unsettled points having to do with the diplomatic controversy over the sinking of the *Lusitania*. This settlement had covered issues of compensation, and of acknowledgment that the deed was contrary to international law and in violation of the rights of neutrals. The principles of settlement, moreover, were regarded as involving express agreements that neutral passengers would be safeguarded in future when properly traveling on passenger ships. When these negotiations were understood to have been completed, Germany and Austria, on or about February 10, made a declaration regarding their understanding and intentions as respects the application of legal distinctions to their submarine practise after March 1. They declared their intention to respect absolutely the rights of neutral vessels. Furthermore, they agreed to practise the doctrine of "visit and search," with the related doctrine of due warning, before attacking merchant ships belonging to enemy countries—*provided such merchant ships were not armed for offensive purposes against German or Austrian submarines*. A number of questions, some of them legal and some of them practical, were at once raised, and a fresh controversy that began rather gently soon grew intense and emotional.

*"Offensive" and  
"Defensive"  
Arming*

The newspapers were told that the Administration was irritated because Germany had declared this attitude towards armed merchant ships





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THE NAVAL EXPERTS WHO CONSTITUTE SECRETARY DANIELS' ADVISORY BOARD AND WHO AIDED THE CONGRESS COMMITTEES LAST MONTH IN PERFECTING THE NAVAL BILL.

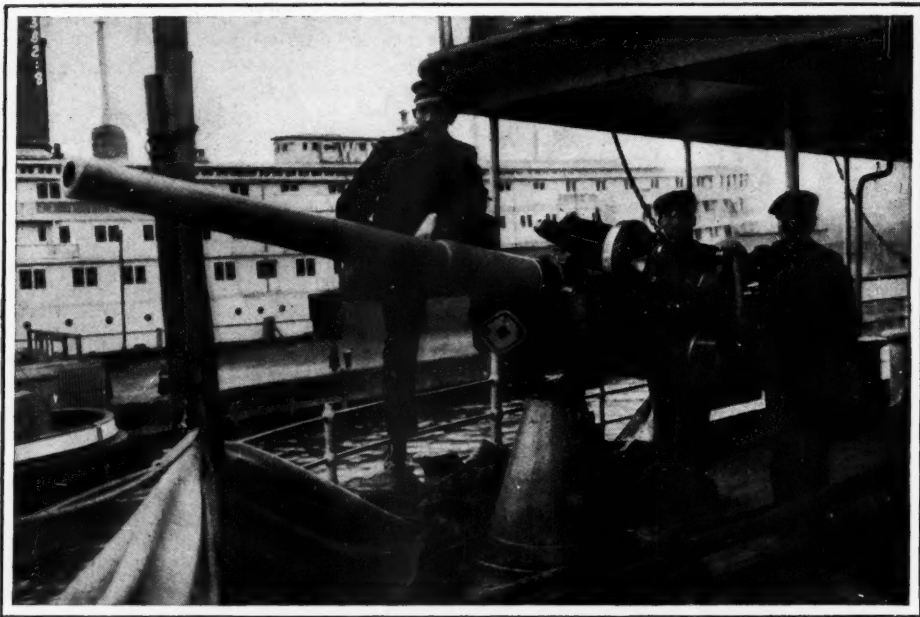
(Front Row: Admiral Benson, Assistant Secretary Roosevelt, Secretary Daniels, Surgeon-General Braisted, and Admiral Griffin. Back Row: Captain McKean, Captain Parsons, Admiral McGowan, Admiral Blue, Admiral Taylor, Captain Wurtzbaugh, and Admiral Strauss.)

without waiting to see if our own Government could not, by persuasion, obtain from England and her allies the admission that this German view was reasonable and fair. It was not contended at first that the German doctrine differed in the least from that which our own Administration regarded as correct. The Allies, however, were rather contemptuous and emphatic in the snubs they administered to the suggestion. They would not consider for a moment the relinquishment of the right to arm merchant ships. The main lines of the issue were almost forgotten in the next stage of the dispute, which had to do with the question whether the new practise of putting modern and powerful naval guns on merchant ships had a defensive or an offensive purpose. Germany declared that she had captured secret instructions given by the English Admiralty to the captains of armed merchant ships, showing conclusively that their guns were to be used offensively to sink submarines. The English at length produced one form of order they had given, which in part supported the German contention. It is to be said that the English liners coming

to the United States had not been carrying guns, although the Italian liners entering New York had recently been thus supplied with powerful modern artillery. Readers will remember that one of the points of controversy at the time of the sinking of the *Lusitania* had to do with the question whether or not she carried guns with which to defend herself against submarines. Mr. Wilson's famous *Lusitania* note made its claims for "unarmed merchantmen." It will also be remembered that when the Italian vessels appeared, several months ago, with mounted guns, our Government took up seriously the question of compelling them to remove this armament, and finally granted clearance papers only on the express promise of the Italian authorities that guns should be used strictly for defensive purposes, although the distinction is not an easy one to understand.

The  
Traditional  
Right to Arm

Landlubbers must bear in mind that the technical right of merchant ships to carry mounted guns is a matter that had almost completely disappeared from discussion in text-books of international law, because the practise itself



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THE 3-INCH NAVAL GUN MOUNTED ON THE STERN OF THE ITALIAN LINER "VERONA"

(This is a type of the guns now used on merchant ships, though some in use are much larger. This rapid-fire gun will fire twenty-four shots a minute, and is effective at a distance of nearly five miles. Such guns are always handled by naval experts, and can easily sink a submarine at a distance of two or three miles, or as far as it could be seen)

had become virtually obsolete. In the old, lawless days when pirate ships roamed the seas, when irregular craft were engaged in the slave trade, and before steam had taken the place of sails, while privateers swarmed the seas in case of the outbreak of war, there were obvious reasons why the private merchant ship should carry a gun or two. She was not supposed to use them against regular men-of-war. When overtaken by a regularly armed ship belonging to the navy of a nation at war, she was expected to receive, for her passengers and crew, the rights and immunities that accompanied the process of capture. Within our period, however, piracy has been stamped out, privateering has been abolished, and the carrying of guns by privately owned and operated merchant ships had become obsolete because needless. Its sudden revival is due to the fact of a wholly new kind of naval warfare. For several generations the United States advocated and strove to secure the exemption from capture and attack of private property at sea. The world would gladly have accepted that enlightened and valuable doctrine if Great Britain's consent could have been obtained. Preying upon peaceful commerce at sea is a shameful thing, whether done by governments or under the black flag. The subma-

rine question would have adjusted itself with perfect ease if John Bull could ever have been made to accept the doctrine that merchant ships, not participating in war but engaged in ordinary and peaceful trade, may not be captured or sunk at sea. The submarine is a fit instrument to be used by a nation in self-defense, as against the warships of an attacking or invading enemy. But the submarine is a horrible monster when engaged in the odious business—that ought long ago to have been outlawed by agreement of all nations—of sinking unarmed merchant ships at sea. When this war is ended, all such questions must be settled on broad grounds of enlightened justice.

*Difficult  
Distinctions*

Since, however, those who rule the sea will not give up the doctrine that all the peaceful ships and peaceful commerce of citizens who owe allegiance to a country that is at war may be driven from the seas by public vessels of war of all kinds, we come to a question of distinctions that cannot be wholly avoided by mere reference to the traditions of international law. Since privateering is forbidden, what constitutes a public armed ship on the one hand, and what constitutes a private merchant ship entitled to the privi-

leges of visitation, search, and warning on the other hand? In a sense, all English merchant ships have now become governmental, because their use is wholly controlled by the government and subjected to military restraints. Thus the big liners at the present time have been removed from the New York passenger service and are in use as transports for Canadian troops and as cargo ships for vast quantities of war munitions. These vessels are engaged in the war as truly as any submarine or dreadnaught could possibly be. The traditional international rules safeguarding merchantmen do not contemplate ships that are actually serving, directly or indirectly, the military purposes of a government at war. The best students of the subject in all phases are thoroughly aware that there are no rules or traditions of international law that meet the conditions actually existing on the sea at the present time.

**America's  
Formal  
Position**

What, then, is now or has recently been the actual position of our own President and Secretary of State upon these important questions? The answer is not in doubt. It is to be read in one of the clearest and best-poised official notes that our Government has until this time prepared, in its series of diplomatic utterances since the beginning of the war. It was, in fact, this statement of our Government that preceded the announcement of the German policy, and that influenced every phase of the subsequent controversy. On January 18 our Administration's position was presented formally to England and her allies by the Department of State. The object avowed was to protect neutrals and non-combatants from the dangers of submarine warfare. The right to use submarines against an enemy's commerce was defended, "since those instruments of war have proved their effectiveness in this practical branch of warfare on the high seas." Having set forth the established principles and rules, Mr. Lansing showed how naval warfare and maritime conditions have been changed since 1914 by the use of submarines; and he is brought to this conclusion:

*"Consequently the placing of guns on merchantmen at the present date of submarine warfare can be explained only on the ground of a purpose to render merchantmen superior in force to submarines, and to prevent warning and visit and search by them. Any armament, therefore, on a merchant vessel would seem to have the character of an offensive armament."*

**Our  
Drastic  
Proposals**

Secretary Lansing proceeded to show that "if a submarine is required to stop and search a merchant vessel on the high seas . . . it would not seem just nor reasonable that the submarine should be compelled, while complying with these requirements, to expose itself to almost certain destruction by the guns on board the merchant vessel." He comes to the conclusion, therefore, that it would be a reasonable and just arrangement to hold submarines strictly to the rules requiring the well-known preliminaries, while holding, on the other hand, that "merchant vessels of belligerent nationality should be prohibited from carrying any armament whatsoever." Though asking the British and Allied governments to accept these views, which he believes "will appeal to the sense of justice and fairness of all the belligerents in the present war," the note does not by any means admit that we shall be governed in our own conduct by the response of Great Britain. On the contrary, Mr. Lansing goes so far as to conclude the note with the following paragraph, which, though couched in diplomatic language, would seem to convey to foreign governments the impression of a policy firmly decided upon, and to be given early effect:

I should add that my Government is impressed with the reasonableness of the argument that a merchant vessel carrying armament of any sort, in view of the character of the submarine warfare and the defensive weakness of undersea craft, should be held to be an auxiliary cruiser and so treated by a neutral as well as by a belligerent Government, and is seriously considering instructing its officials accordingly.

**Practical  
Meanings**

It is well for the layman to understand just what these last words imply. Since it is the most decisive and important expression made in any note to the belligerent governments at any time since the outbreak of the war (with the possible exception of the note of February 10, 1915, threatening to hold Germany to "strict accountability")—it is surprising that it has not been more widely discussed. This seems to be due to the fact that the note was not given to the American press at the time it was sent to Great Britain and her allies. It was, however, made public in Europe, and Germany was supposedly familiar with its sentiments and its expressions. Our Government, then, as long ago as January 18, declared officially to the belligerent powers that it was seriously proposing to treat armed merchant ships as aux-

iliary cruisers. This means that an English, Italian, or French liner or freighter coming into any American port with a mounted gun would be regarded as a warship. It would not be allowed to discharge a cargo or to take on a cargo, and it would have to leave port within twenty-four hours. It would not be allowed to discharge any passengers, nor would it be allowed to take any passengers on board. Thus the thing that our Government had officially declared to the world was reasonable and right, and that it was "seriously" proposing to do, would have acted in the most peremptory way to keep all Americans off armed belligerent merchant ships.

*Did  
Bernstorff  
Understand?*

So much for facts that are as open and clear as sunshine at noon. After this come the things that must puzzle the historian if he ever tries to find any thread of consistency running through them. It was ten days later that responsible newspapers here at home were given certain intimations as to the character of the note (see the *New York Times* of January 28), and were told by the State Department that Count von Bernstorff and the Austrian representative, Baron Zwiedinek, had been duly informed and consulted regarding the document that had been forwarded to the foreign offices of Great Britain, France, Russia, Italy, Japan, and Belgium. It was several weeks after we had taken this strong and unqualified position as to what was right and reasonable in the relations between submarine warfare and the arming of merchant ships, that the State Department gave to the press the news that Secretary Lansing and Count von Bernstorff had agreed upon the last point of difference in the negotiations concerning the *Lusitania*. Our views, therefore, regarding armed merchant ships were fully known to the German Government when this agreement was worked out. It was on February 9 that it was announced that Mr. Lansing and Count von Bernstorff had agreed upon the last details, subject only to the acceptance at Berlin of the change of a single word. And this acceptance at Berlin was announced on February 15.

*Germany's  
Announcement*

Meanwhile, on February 10, Germany and Austria had declared that beginning with March 1 they would treat the armed merchant ships of their enemies exactly in the manner that the American Government had

officially declared to be reasonable and just, in its memorandum cabled to all of the Allied governments on January 18. The correspondent of the *New York Times* informed us that our Government was notified of Germany's intentions on February 9, in the very same conference during which the *Lusitania* agreement was made. In short, we made the *Lusitania* agreement more than three weeks after we had notified the world of our views about armed merchant ships, apparently knowing that Germany had decided to conform her practice to those principles which we had expressly laid down as reasonable and just for her to act upon. The most careful and best-informed correspondents in Washington, writing independently of each other, informed us on February 10 that the Administration was in accord with the German view. The *Times* declared that "enough was learned to-day to warrant the statement that . . . the United States Government will deny entry to armed merchant ships except under the conditions which apply to warships, and will issue a formal warning to Americans that their lives will be imperilled if they travel on armed enemy merchant ships." The *Sun* declared that "the State Department is seriously considering . . . issuing a general notice to American travelers to keep off armed liners." The *New York World*, which is strongly pro-Ally but which is also recognized as the chief New York organ of the Administration, expressed its inability to see any reason why "Americans should risk life and property on so-called merchantmen which in fact are ships of war." There was great difference among leading American newspapers as to the wisdom of enforcing the Lansing views; but there seems to have been no doubt at all as to the attitude and the intentions of the Administration at that time.

*Our Sudden  
Change  
of Attitude*

The front page of the newspapers, however, at that moment was seized by other topics. It was on that very date (February 10) that Secretary Garrison withdrew from the cabinet under highly sensational circumstances. The question of military preparedness had taken the President's attention, and he had on January 28 gone West on his speaking tour, returning to Washington on February 4. It was on February 12 that the full text of the Lansing note on the disarmament of merchant ships was cabled from Europe to the *Chicago Herald* and published simultaneously in the *New York Times*. It did not



seem, however, to have been widely read and understood, although the *Times* headlines declared that the note "tells the Powers that we probably will treat all armed vessels as warships." On February 15 came ex-Secretary Root's speech assailing the diplomacy of the Administration, particularly in its failure to hold Germany to account. On the morning of the 16th there were three main headlines on the front page of the *New York Times*. The three were as follows: "Root Denounces Wilson's Policy Toward the War," "Berlin Meets Our *Lusitania* Terms," "America to Hold that Liners May Arm for Defense." It seems that a statement was given to the press after the Cabinet meeting of Tuesday, February 15, which involved a remarkable change of our Government's official position.

*The  
New Doctrines  
Outlined*

The first clause of this new statement was that "the Government admits that merchant vessels have an international legal right to arm for the sole purpose of defense." The second clause in the new statement asserts that "the Government is seriously impressed with the reasonableness of the argument that a merchant vessel should not carry armament of any sort." In the third clause, we declare that the present rule allowing "merchant vessels to arm only for defense ought to be changed; nevertheless, the Government does not feel that it can change or disregard this rule during the progress of the war without the assent of the contending belligerents." In the fourth clause, our proposal of January 18 was referred to as a plan for "a gentlemen's agreement among the warring powers for the removal of armament of any sort from merchant ships." The fifth and sixth clauses referred to the submission of proposals to the belligerent powers. The seventh clause declares flatly that "the Government will not blaze the way with any announcement to hold that belligerent merchantmen carrying guns of any sort be treated as auxiliary cruisers." The eighth clause says that "the Government will rely on existing international law, and stand by the right of belligerent merchant ships to arm only for defense." The ninth clause says that our Government may decide to insist that a merchantman "is not armed for defense when its armament is superior in force to the armament of a submarine." (Mr. Lansing, in his note of January 18, had said: "Even a merchant ship carrying a small-caliber gun would be able to use it effectively for offense against the sub-

marine." And he had said further: "Any armament, therefore, on a merchant vessel, would seem to have the character of an offensive armament."). The tenth clause says that "Americans will not be warned to refrain from traveling on merchantmen armed with guns solely for purposes of defense." The eleventh clause says that if Americans should lose their lives in an attack without warning, our Government would require evidence not only as to the size and nature of the merchantman's armament but as to the position and use of the guns. The twelfth clause says that we have made no protest against the German and Austrian announcement, but that we may possibly inquire how Germany and Austria propose to distinguish between armed and unarmed ships, and so forth.

*Further  
Changes of  
Attitude*

These statements involved much shifting of ground from the position taken in January. It was stated that the memorandum was given out because on the following Friday, as had been announced, Senators Sterling and Lodge were to speak in the Senate against the new position of the Central Powers. On the following day (February 16) Secretary Lansing gave out a formal statement to the effect that the *Lusitania* case was held up, and its settlement must depend upon how German submarine warfare would be conducted in the future. Apparently our Government had shifted its position somewhat more on each successive day. The Administration had made a serious mistake, in our judgment, in refusing to stand by its own settlement of the *Lusitania* question, in view of all the formal and official facts of its own shaping. The only possible inference is that our Government had for good reasons changed its mind as to a working policy, in the face of essential facts. We had taken the firm ground that merchant ships ought not to be armed at all. We had now begun to take the ground that we must inquire whether they are armed for offense or for defense. We had left it reasonably to be inferred that Americans ought to be warned not to travel on belligerent merchantmen, if we considered them sufficiently armed for purposes of offense. No easy solution was in sight.

*Again, the  
German  
Alarm*

But meanwhile we had told Germany that we would not accept the settlement of the *Lusitania* case without further assurances regarding the future. By this time Congress began to be

aroused. Senator Sterling had made a speech on the submarine question, and resolutions were being prepared. On the 21st the leaders of the committees having to do with foreign affairs, Senator Stone and Representative Flood, accompanied by Senator Kern, were in consultation with the President. Mr. Wilson insisted that Congress should let diplomatic affairs alone, and particularly that it should not vote upon a resolution warning Americans to keep off armed ships. To sum up a matter of impressions: Some Congressmen derived the mistaken view that President Wilson was on the point of precipitating a break with Germany, while in fact the State Department was ready to prolong friendly diplomatic discussion with Count von Bernstorff. By degrees, and before it had all been realized, the Administration had apparently been placed in the position of the most uncompromising champion of the doctrine that merchant ships had a right to arm, and that we must at all hazards protect the right of any casual American to travel anywhere on the armed ships of belligerents.

*Congress  
Excited*

Congress, meanwhile, found itself taking the attitude toward the whole subject that the President and Secretary of State had assumed in the original memorandum they had given to the Allied governments in January, but had since modified. Congress, however, did not go nearly so far as the President had previously gone. Congress merely did not wish to be drawn into needless trouble with Germany. It did not propose to call armed merchantmen "auxiliary cruisers," as the President himself had proposed. It merely desired to support the President, by adopting a resolution against the granting of passports to travelers, or in some other way emphasizing the danger to Americans of being on board belligerent armed ships while the principles were still under diplomatic discussion. No one proposed that Americans should give up any of their abstract rights as neutrals. At first President Wilson used all his influence to prevent resolutions from coming to a vote or being discussed. On February 29, however, the President suddenly asked the acting chairman of the House Committee on Rules to secure "an early vote upon the resolutions with regard to travel on armed merchantmen." The President had on February 24 written a letter to Senator Stone, which had made not the slightest reference to the note to the Allies, and which declared unswerving devotion to doctrines



Photographs by Harris & Ewing, Washington, D. C.

COUNT J. H. VON BERNSTORFF, GERMAN AMBASSADOR, AND BARON ZWIEDINEK, CHARGÉ D'AFFAIRES OF THE AUSTRIAN EMBASSY, AFTER CALLING AT THE STATE DEPARTMENT

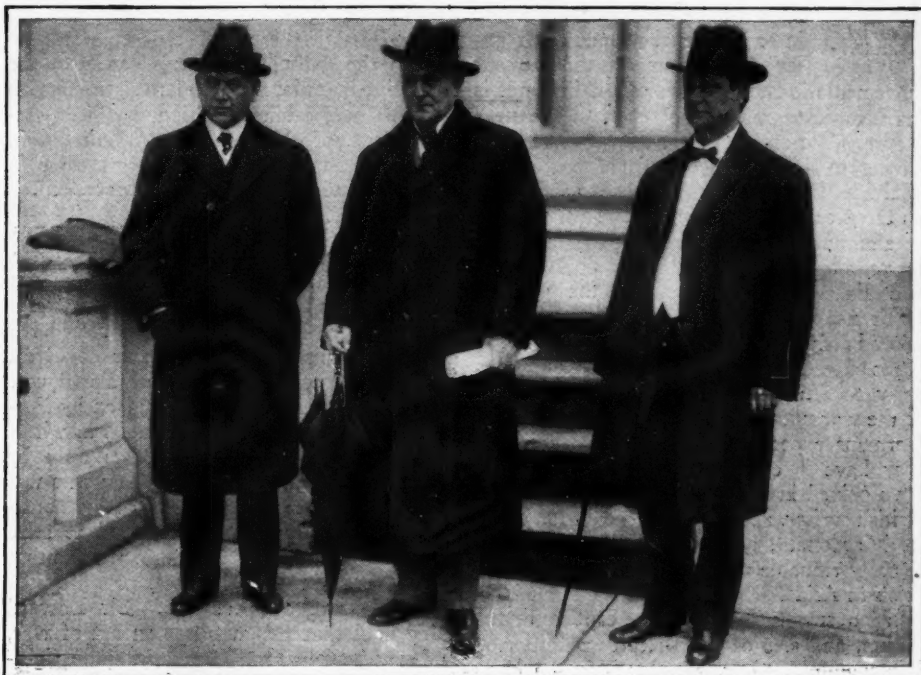
that Mr. Lansing's note had not emphasized. Most of the Democratic leaders, in both houses of Congress, and a majority at least of the members of the President's own party, were in favor of warning Americans and of holding to the earlier Lansing doctrines.

*Evasive  
Action*

Action was deferred, however, until the President, as we have remarked, suddenly changed his view and demanded a vote from Congress upon a matter which he had previously said was exclusively the executive department's business. The vote in the Senate was upon a preamble and resolution framed by Senator Gore. By a trick of substitution, the resolution in final form was as follows:

*Resolved*, That the sinking by a German submarine, without notice or warning, of an armed merchant vessel of her public enemy, resulting in the death of a citizen of the United States, would constitute a just and sufficient cause of war between the United States and the German Empire.

The resolution, however, did not come to a vote at all upon its merits, because it was tabled by a vote of 68 to 14. The President had demanded a clear vote, with full discussion, on the question of travelers on armed ships. His own managers in the Senate did everything in their power to prevent that question from being voted upon, adopting the parliamentary device of tabling any form of resolution. The result was evasive in effect, and the action unsatisfactory both to the Senate and to the Administration. In the House, the preamble and resolution were much more



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LEFT TO RIGHT: CONGRESSMAN HENRY D. FLOOD, SPEAKER CHAMP CLARK, AND MAJORITY LEADER CLAUDE KITCHIN, LEAVING THE WHITE HOUSE AFTER A CONFERENCE WITH THE PRESIDENT ON HIS SUBMARINE POLICY

elaborate as drawn by Mr. McLemore, of Texas. The vote in the House was decidedly more intelligible, though not direct. It took place on March 7. The leaders, acting for the Administration, were again opposed to securing a vote upon the measure itself. The vote came upon the question whether the resolutions would be taken up to be acted upon, or whether they would be laid upon the table. They were laid upon the table by a vote of 276 to 142. The House was in overwhelming sympathy with the doctrines and purposes of the McLemore resolution. The public was correctly informed, however, that the vote had sustained the President in his right to deal with diplomatic issues.

Where  
We Now  
Stand

Meanwhile, the submarine question remains just where it was before. The Allies seem to be rapidly arming their merchant ships. All such armament is, of course, for action against submarines; and there is not a human being who can make a clear distinction between "offensive" and "defensive" use of such armaments. We are unable to see any hope of compromise between the position taken by the Allies, and the position first

taken by our Government and then adopted, as if with encouragement, by Germany. Certain readers wish to know our own editorial opinions. First, then, we cannot imagine the Allies, at the present stage, giving up the right to arm merchant ships against submarines. Second, we think that many of the armed merchantmen should be regarded as "in Government service" and should refuse to take neutral passengers. Third, we do not think that in view of all the facts our Government should hold Germany accountable for lives lost in the case of a merchant ship that has opened war upon a submarine, without taking evidence. Although the need has been obvious since the outbreak of the war, it is not too late yet for us to call the neutral nations together, and attempt to find a common policy as regards the principles which our Government tried to formulate justly in January, and modified as to practise in the Ides of March. Holland and Sweden have these questions to deal with; and Argentina, Chile, and Brazil are as much affected as our own country. It is not their strength that we need to support us, but it is their views as steady opinions and confirming our positions.

*Our War Articles*

As we have explained elsewhere in some remarks about our regular contributor on the current movements in the great war, Mr. Simonds is in Europe, to return, however, in the near future. We are fortunate, in his absence, in having so accomplished a student of world affairs as Dr. Talcott Williams to write upon the great battle of Verdun. In the extent of ammunition used, and in many other respects, this intense struggle between Germany and France, centering about the greatest of France's frontier fortresses, surpasses any other battle recorded in all history. As our pages closed for the press it was quite too early to estimate the bearing of this phase of the war upon the final outcome. That the Germans expected to accomplish more than they have is evident. The Allies seem to have gained in spirits and determination. A British writer, now at Montreal, Mr. James B. Macdonald, gives our readers an exceptionally valuable account of the military situation in Asia Minor. He writes of the Russian movements following the capture of Erzerum, and also of the British expedition in Mesopotamia. Mr. Stanley Washburn, at home on a furlough, writes for us a brilliant account of Russia's part in the war. Decisive things may happen within a few months.

*Personal Changes*

There have been many personal changes in military and political leadership; but this has always been the case when great countries are at war. In Germany, Admiral von Tirpitz has retired and has been succeeded in the direction of naval affairs by Admiral von Capelle, who has been one of the Admiralty's chief administrators. The newspapers have attempted to explain this change as due to Admiral von Tirpitz's insistence upon an extremely aggressive submarine policy. But we are not in possession of facts that wholly justify any such conclusion. We have heard little lately of the great hero, Hindenberg, while the German Crown Prince Frederick William has been given the conspicuous place of leadership in the fighting around Verdun. In France General Gallieni has been retired from his post as Minister of War, and has been succeeded by General Charles Roques, as a member of the Briand cabinet. Gen. Roques had created the French military aviation service. It was reported from Turkey that the intrepid War Minister and leader, Enver Pasha, had been assassinated; but he had merely been at the front to inspect the troops, and is again in his place. There

seems to be a growing spirit of unity in England, although there has been some friction due to the calling of married men to the colors in the enforcement of the conscription law. A new cabinet position was been created—that of War Trade Minister, in charge of the blockade and other Orders in Council—and given to Lord Robert Cecil.

*Portugal Now at War*

As a matter of formal news, though not of vital consequence, the entrance of Portugal as one of the nations at war must not be disregarded. Portugal has all along been considered as virtually involved on the side of Great Britain. A certain amount of Portuguese aid and countenance had been given by Portugal against the Germans in Africa, where Portuguese possessions are secure only by virtue of English protection. The war was declared by Germany rather than by Portugal. The Portuguese had decided to seize and make use of sixty-five German ships that lay interned in their harbors, promising to make ultimate compensation. Sir Edward Grey held that this was not an act of war, and was permissible. Germany, quite rightly, however, took the view that the step was hostile in fact and intent, and promptly declared war. There was a current report that the Brazilians, who are also of Portuguese blood and speech, had seized forty-two interned German ships because of a desperate need of means of ocean transportation. But the report lacked confirmation as these pages were written on March 20.

*Other War Notes*

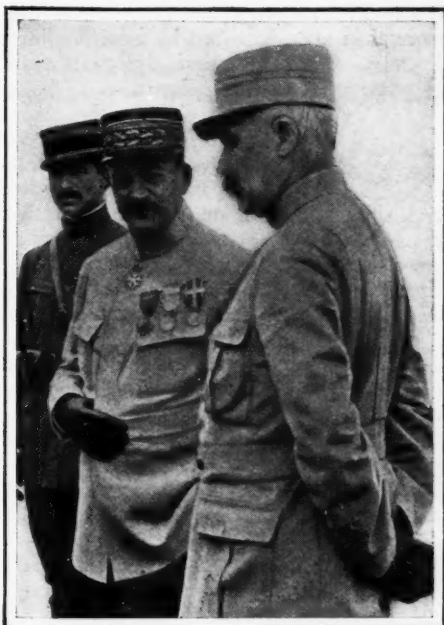
It is to be remarked that the seizure of German ships interned in Italian ports, in February, had not resulted in a declaration of war. It has long been expected that Italy would not continue to fight Germany's allies while keeping up the pretense of being at peace with Germany. Rumania has been mobilizing to the utmost of her capacity, but seems to be merely waiting for her chance to grab desired territory according as the fortunes of war may afford her a final opportunity. She is expecting an Allied drive against Bulgaria from the Salonika base. If Russia should be strong enough to make it seem worth while, Rumania may assist and take as her reward the long-coveted Transylvania. Holland was intensely excited over the sinking of two important ships, especially her South American liner, the *Tubantia*. It is incredible that Germany, relying as she does upon Dutch imports, should have purposely injured a Dutch merchantman. Sweden and Norway,





FIELD-MARSHAL COUNT VON HAESELER

(The great German strategist who has been chief adviser at Verdun, while the Crown Prince Frederick Wilhelm has been in nominal command)



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FRANCE'S HERO OF VERDUN

(General Petain, on the right, is the French general in immediate command of the forces that have defended Verdun. Next to him is General Baumgarten)



GERMANY'S NEW NAVAL HEAD

(There was a great stir in Germany last month over the retirement of Admiral von Tirpitz. His successor is Admiral von Capelle, who has been one of the leading administrators of the Admiralty)



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THE NEW FRENCH MINISTER OF WAR

(Gen. Charles Roques, famous as the organizer and head of the French aviation service, is now War Minister in the Briand cabinet, succeeding General Gallieni, who had served for five months)

from different standpoints, have also been more than ever disturbed by maritime interferences. Greece displeased Italy last month by annexing a part of Albania.

*A Runaway  
Steel  
Market*

Once more Mr. Carnegie's saying that steel is always either prince or pauper is being proved, and this time in more spectacular fashion than ever before. Prices of steel products were on the first of January, 1916, higher than they had been for fifteen years; by the middle of March they were higher still by about eight dollars per gross ton, reaching a level never before recorded. The underlying cause for this spectacular change from the depression of little more than a year ago is our current exports of nearly 400,000 tons of iron and steel each month. The English and German manufacturers are using their material and factories to supply the war demand. Quickened by these exports to Europe, the American home market began to clamor for steel, and now it is scarcely a question of price, but rather a question of where the material can be obtained at all. In 1915, the output of iron in the United States was 29,900,000 tons, within a million tons of the record year of 1913. In March, iron was being produced at the rate of more than 37,000,000 tons per year.

*New Steel  
Makers  
Springing Up*

The great new demand and the unheard-of prices for steel and iron have made prosperous, overnight, concerns that have never before paid dividends, even those that were actually insolvent; and new combinations of steel-makers are announced each month. One Southern concern, which had never distributed a return to its stockholders and which had been in the hands of receivers three times, is now reported to be earning profits at the rate of 50 per cent. a year for its common stock. The Bethlehem Company, which little more than a year ago seemed five or ten years away from any dividends on the common stock, is already paying its stockholders 30 per cent. a year, and is said to be earning at the rate of 300 per cent. Its stock recently sold for 600; eighteen months ago it was selling around 34. Mr. Schwab's ambition for this Arabian Nights factory took a new step last month in the acquisition of the Pennsylvania Steel Company, which the Bethlehem Corporation bought at a price of approximately \$32,000,000, coming, through the consolidation, into a position in iron capacity second only to

the United States Steel Corporation. The Bethlehem plants are now able to turn out between 2,000,000 and 2,500,000 tons of pig iron annually. The purchase from the Pennsylvania Railroad gives the Bethlehem Corporation a plant on the seaboard at Sparrows Point, near Baltimore, to aid in the development of the export trade; valuable also are its coal deposits and ore properties in America, Cuba, and Chili. A second consolidation of large dimensions, announced in February, came from the purchase by the newly organized Midvale Corporation of the Cambria Steel Company at a price of more than \$25,000,000, the purchasing fund being obtained from sales of the Midvale's own capital stock.

*Wild Times  
In Copper*

Cool-headed observers do not show unqualified enthusiasm for the furious advance in prices and production of steel, iron, copper—nearly all the metals in fact—and in a majority of the commodities used by our manufacturers. "Runaway" markets are notoriously dangerous. It is obvious that at some point merchants and manufacturers purchasing at these prices will find their costs increasing faster than they can raise prices to their own consumers. A climax, followed by readjustment and depression, is too apt to result from such wildfire prosperity; but up to the present time no appreciable pause has come in the price movement and production figures of copper, zinc, lead, or in steel and iron. Copper is about 12 cents a pound more than it was a year ago. When it is considered that a majority of the important producers can make a living profit with the metal selling at only 13 cents a pound, one can anticipate the huge earnings of the mines in the present situation, with munition plants abroad using copper faster than it can be imported, stocks and visible supplies declining everywhere, and the entire product of great companies sold for months ahead.

*A Shortage  
in Paper*

A commodity even so indirectly related to the demands of war as paper is showing the prevailing tendencies to such a degree as seriously to embarrass publishers. The higher price of paper stock and the difficulty of obtaining it at all in England was a chief factor in the discontinuance in March of the London daily *Standard*, after a career of sixty years, for a considerable portion of which it was the most important organ of the middle classes in England. In America the demand

for paper has been increasing for six months as a result of general business activity. At the same time, supplies used in its manufacture have been decreased by war conditions, and in some cases have almost been shut off. The supply of old rags is affected by the cutting off of the importations from the European peasantry and by the demand for the making of guncotton. The chemicals used in bleaching the paper produced by sulphuric acid and alum are being devoured by the manufacturers of explosives, while importations of jute have fallen off until the price is doubled. An embargo has been placed on shipments of wood pulp from Norway and Sweden, while Canada stopped access to her vast resources some time ago. The newspaper publisher is, indeed, hard hit by war conditions in many other items of supplies besides the basic one of paper stock. Practically everything going into the manufacture of a daily newspaper has increased in price from 10 to 50 per cent.—inks, owing to the advance in the cost of acids and dyes, from 300 to 3000 per cent.; type, owing to the higher cost of lead, tin and antimony—even the rubber and felt blankets wrapped around the press rollers add their quota to the increased "cost-of-living" of the metropolitan daily.

*A Sample of  
War-Time  
Profits*

If business and industry in general find danger or present embarrassment in the war-time fury of prices, the makers of munitions are rolling up profits so fast that they scarcely notice increases in manufacturing cost that would a year or two ago have seemed prohibitive. An example appears in the recently published report of the operations of E. I. du Pont de Nemours & Co., the great powder manufacturers, for the fiscal year 1915. Net earnings for this war year were nearly \$58,000,000 as against a showing of only \$5,600,000 in 1914—an increase of more than 900 per cent. and an earning rate of 94.3 per cent. annually on the common stock. In October, 1914, the company employed 5300 men; on January 1, 1916, 62,168 men. It is interesting to note in the remarks of the president to the stockholders of this typical munitions factory, that its managers are already, even in the thick of these unheard-of profits, considering what will happen when there is a sudden drop in the abnormal military business. He says that when that comes the company cannot use all the large plants recently built and that, with this in mind, it is amortizing such investments by heavy charges

against the profits of the temporary business and, at the same time, using every effort to develop more permanent commercial businesses, such as the manufacture of celluloid.

*A Trust Put  
on Good  
Behavior*

An interesting opinion is that handed down in the last week of February by Judge Rose in the U. S. District Court, in which he refused to order the dissolution of the American Can Company, but retained the bill filed against it by the Government. The Court thus kept the case open, in a sense, with the explicit purpose to give the Government every facility for attacking the corporation in case it should, in its future current transactions, transcend the law. Judge Rose has expressed himself as reluctant "to destroy so fine an industrial machine as the records show the defendant to be." Still, it was held that the corporation had its origin in acts unlawful under the Sherman legislation and acquired a power which might be harmful, although "it for some time past has used that power on the whole rather for weal than for woe." Farther on in this decree, which throughout shows a striking quality of good sense and fairness, the Court expressed the hope that Congress will substitute "some other method than dissolution for dealing with problems which arise when a single corporation absorbs a large part of the country's productive capacity in any one line."

*Taking  
England's Place  
in Argentina*

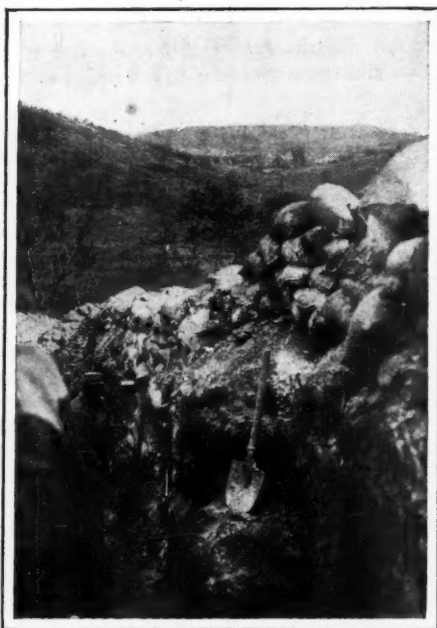
The announcement in March that New York bankers had made a new loan of \$15,000,000 to the Argentine Republic, bringing their total advances since the war began to \$79,000,000, calls attention to the work the United States is now doing in South America that was done by Great Britain prior to the war. Following the loans to Argentina, we find the exports from the United States to that country increased from \$27,000,000 in 1914 to \$53,000,000 last year. Imports from Argentina were \$56,000,000 in 1914 and \$95,000,000 last year. It is to be noted that, whereas normally our exports to the South American republic are double our imports, the balance of trade is now heavily against us, the difference being settled by the advances of gold mentioned above. What we want finally, of course, is to sell our manufactured articles to the people of Argentina. The advance of gold loans is felt to be the first step toward this, as it is the rule in international trade that countries get the habit of buying where they borrow.



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**VILLAGE OF ORNES (IN THE MIDDLE DISTANCE) EVACUATED BY THE FRENCH**

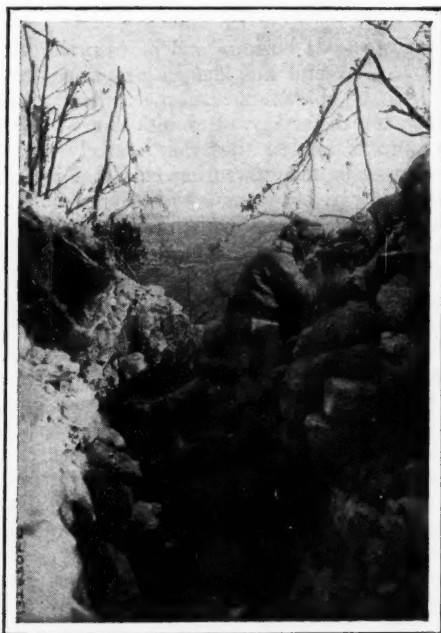
(Ornes is a small village south of Azannes, on the railroad which crosses the Woevre Plain, running north and southeast of Verdun, to which a branch extends)



© Underwood & Underwood, New York

**A FIRST-LINE TRENCH TOWARDS MAUCOURT**

(Maucourt is northeast of Verdun, on the line from which the Germans began their advance)



© Underwood & Underwood, New York

**A LISTENING-POST ON THE HEIGHTS OF THE MEUSE**

(This looks out to the north where the German and French lines are locked in battle across the plain)

**THE BATTLEGROUND AT VERDUN**



# RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From February 19 to March 20, 1916)

## *The Last Part of February*

February 19.—On the Yser Canal in Belgium, north of Ypres, the Germans capture by storm 400 yards of British trenches.

February 20.—The German Zeppelin airship LZ 77, of modern type, is destroyed by a French automobile gun crew near Revigny.

February 21.—The Germans launch at Verdun their greatest offensive on the French front since the early weeks of the war; the French declare that 300,000 German troops are engaged, under the command of the Crown Prince.

In the Artois district, the Germans capture by assault French trenches in the Forest of Givenchy, over a front of 875 yards.

The British House of Commons votes war credits amounting to \$2,100,000,000, the largest sum ever granted; total war credits to date amount to \$10,410,000,000.

February 22.—The Russian Duma (prorogued on September 16) is opened with the Czar attending, informally, for the first time in its history.

The French Chamber of Deputies passes a bill levying a tax on businesses whose profits have increased by reason of the war.

February 23.—In the House of Commons, the British Premier reiterates his declaration of November 9, 1914, that before peace can come Belgium—and now Serbia—must recover more than they have sacrificed, France must be adequately secured against aggression, and the military domination of Prussia must be destroyed.

The British Secretary for the Colonies states that 730,000 square miles of German territory in Africa have been captured, out of a total of 931,500.

The post of War Trade Minister is created in Great Britain and Lord Robert Cecil is appointed to the office.

The Portuguese Government seizes 36 German and Austrian merchant ships interned at Lisbon.

February 25.—Continued German assaults on the French fortified position at Verdun have resulted in an advance of from 2 to 4 miles over a front of 20 miles; Fort de Douaumont, within five miles of the city, is captured by the Germans but later won back by the French.

The Persian city of Kermanshah is captured by Russian armies moving westward, from Turkish and Kurdish forces.

The German Government announces new taxation measures, including imposts on war profits and increases in the rates on tobacco, in stamp taxes, and postal, telephone, and telegraph tolls.

February 26.—Austrian armies moving southward through Albania enter Durazzo, evacuated by the Italians.

General Kuropatkin, of Japanese war fame, is appointed commander-in-chief of the Russian armies on the northern front.

The Russian War office announces that 13,000 Turkish prisoners were taken at Erzerum.

The extent of participation of American plants in the manufacture of munitions for the Entente

Powers is indicated by the report of the DuPont powder works, showing that the number of employees increased from 5300 to 62,168.

February 27.—The French auxiliary cruiser *Provence* (formerly a transatlantic liner) is sunk while carrying troops in the Mediterranean, presumably by a submarine; 3100 lives are lost.

The British steamship *Maloja*, en route to India, strikes a mine near Dover and sinks within half an hour; more than 150 passengers and crew are lost.

February 28.—The French succeed in checking the German advance on Verdun, and the attack shifts to the east and southeast.

In the Champagne district, 35 miles west of Verdun, a German surprise attack carries a mile of French trenches near Souain.

February 29.—A German official report declares that 16,800 French prisoners have been taken at Verdun.

In the attack on Verdun from the east, the Germans make important gains and occupy several villages.

The Italian Government requisitions 34 German steamers interned in Italian ports, although not at war with Germany.

A meeting of the British Association of Chambers of Commerce, at London, expresses its conviction that the British nation must produce its requirements from its own soil and factories, and must revise the tariff system so as to grant preferential rates between all British countries and reciprocal rates to the nation's allies.

## *The First Week of March*

March 1.—The Austro-German classification of armed enemy merchantmen as warships becomes effective.

The budget introduced in the Russian Duma forecasts war expenditures of \$15,000,000 a day; Finance Minister Bark states that the ban on vodka reduced the revenue from that source from \$345,000,000 in 1914 to \$4,500,000 in 1915; farm lands under cultivation decreased 7,000,000 acres.

March 2.—It is estimated in Germany that the gains at Verdun total 105 square miles.

After three days of comparative inaction, the Germans resume their assaults on Verdun, gaining ground in the north at Douaumont.

The Russians carry by a bayonet charge the fortified city of Bitlis, Armenia, 110 miles south of Erzerum.

The British Government makes public instructions given armed merchantmen (in October, 1915), which state that armament is supplied solely for resisting attack by an armed enemy vessel, yet which also state that fire may be opened in self-defense in order to prevent hostile submarines and aircraft from closing in.

March 5.—The German Naval Staff announces that the *Moewe* has arrived at a home port (presumably Wilhelmshaven), after destroying fifteen Allied merchant ships.

Three German Zeppelin airships make a night raid over eight counties on the east coast of Eng-

land, dropping bombs and killing three men, four women, and five children.

Col. Edward M. House, President Wilson's "unofficial personal representative," returns to the United States after a ten weeks' visit to England, France, and Germany.

March 6.—The German offensive at Verdun enters a third phase, an attack from the northwest, on the western bank of the Meuse; the village of Forges is captured.

The British relief expedition in Mesopotamia, under General Aylmer, reaches Essinn, on the Tigris, within seven miles of Kut-el-Amara, where General Townshend's force is surrounded.

March 7.—The Germans gain the village of Fresnes, southeast of Verdun.

It is officially announced that the British Navy has been increased by 1,000,000 tons since the beginning of the war.

### *The Second Week of March*

March 8.—Germany declares war on Portugal, because of the seizure of German merchant ships in Portuguese harbors, as the climax of a long series of breaches of neutrality.

March 9.—The Norwegian bark *Silius* is sunk near Havre; it is asserted that the vessel was torpedoed, without warning.

March 10.—The German attack on Verdun centers around the fort and town of Vaux.

In the Aisne region, northwest of Rheims, the Germans puncture the French line to a depth of two-thirds of a mile.

The British War Office states that the relief expedition in Mesopotamia has been obliged to retire eight miles to the Tigris, for water.

A British torpedo boat and a destroyer are sunk by mines off the east coast of England.

March 12.—The twentieth day of the German assaults on Verdun passes without infantry attack; Germany declares that 26,472 French prisoners have been taken.

March 14.—The Italian armies attack along the whole Isonzo front, making gains on the Corso plateau.

### *The Third Week of March*

March 15.—Grand Admiral von Tirpitz resigns as German Minister of Marine; he was the creator of Germany's navy and also responsible for the submarine warfare; he is succeeded by Admiral von Capelle.

The Dutch passenger steamer *Tubantia*, bound for South America, is sunk by a mine or torpedo off the coast of Holland.

March 16.—The Germans renew their violent assaults on Verdun, the French report stating that at Dead Man's Hill they came on like waves, but were unable to gain a footing.

General Gallieni resigns from the Ministry of War in France, having served five months; he is succeeded by General Roques.

March 17.—The State Department at Washington makes public a note from Germany quoting alleged secret orders to armed British merchant ships, that pursuing submarines should be fired upon even though a definite hostile act may not have been committed.

A member of the French Senate asserts that 800,000 French children have been rendered fatherless by the war.

March 18.—In an engagement between an invading French aeroplane squadron and a German squadron, in Upper Alsace, four French and three German machines are destroyed.

The French destroyer *Renaudin* is sunk by a submarine in the Adriatic Sea.

The Dutch liner *Palembang* is sunk by a mine or torpedo in the North Sea.

March 19.—Four German seaplanes drop bombs on the southeast coast of England, killing nine persons; one of the machines is brought down by a British aviator.

March 20.—In the attack on Verdun, the Germans assault with great violence in Malancour Wood, after an intense bombardment with heavy guns.

Sixty-five British, French and Belgian flying machines attack German aircraft stations at Zeebrugge, on the Belgian coast.

An attempt is made to assassinate Premier Radoslavov of Bulgaria, in Sofia.

## RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From February 18 to March 20, 1916)

### PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

February 18.—In the Senate, Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.) and Mr. Sterling (Rep., S. D.) condemn the proposal to acquiesce in Germany's declared intention to attack armed merchantmen of enemy countries; the treaty with Nicaragua is ratified by vote of 55 to 18.

February 23.—In the House, Democratic opposition to the President's attitude toward the German submarine policy threatens to overthrow his control; it is stated that practically every Democratic member of the Committee on Foreign Affairs opposes the President and favors warning Americans not to take passage on armed merchantmen of belligerent countries.

February 24.—The President writes Chairman

Stone, of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee, that he "cannot consent to any abridgment of the rights of American citizens" as affected by Germany's new proposal to war on armed merchant ships.

February 25.—The Senate confirms the nomination of Henry P. Fletcher to be Ambassador to Mexico. . . . In the House, the revolt against the President subsides, after conferences of leaders in both branches with the President.

February 28.—The Senate ratifies without division or amendment the treaty with Haiti. . . . The House passes the Post-office bill (\$321,000,600), the first of the appropriation measures, after limiting parcel-post packages to fifty pounds.

February 29.—The President writes to Acting Chairman Pou, of the House Committee on Rules,

urging a vote on the resolutions relating to travel on armed merchantmen; the Administration leaders had previously endeavored to avoid a vote.

March 2.—In the Senate, Mr. Gore (Dem., Okla.) declares that President Wilson has stated in private conversation with Senators and Representatives that if Germany persists in her present position war will probably follow, which will not of necessity be an evil to the United States as the war might then be brought to a conclusion by midsummer; the President authorizes an unqualified denial.

March 3.—The Senate, by vote of 68 to 14, tables the resolution of Mr. Gore (Dem., Okla.) originally warning Americans not to travel on armed belligerent vessels but altered by Mr. Gore himself to declare that if an American citizen loses his life on an armed merchant ship attacked without warning by a German submarine it would constitute a cause of war; Mr. Gore votes against his own resolution.

March 4.—In the Senate, a bill providing for an enlarged army is introduced by the Chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs; it authorizes a regular army of 178,000 and aims to create an organization of volunteer forces in each Congressional district, under federal control, and to federalize the militia in the various States.

March 6.—The Senate confirms the nominations of David R. Francis, of Missouri, as Ambassador to Russia, and Joseph H. Shea, of Indiana, as Ambassador to Chile. . . . In the House, a bill increasing the regular army and expanding the militia system is introduced by Chairman Hay, of the Committee on Military Affairs; it is proposed to establish a peace strength of 140,000.

March 7.—The Senate receives and confirms the nomination of Newton D. Baker to be Secretary of War. . . . The House, by vote of 276 to 142, tables the resolution of Mr. McLemore (Dem., Tex.) warning American travelers to avoid armed merchant ships of belligerents.

March 14.—The House, with the one Socialist member opposing, adopts an emergency resolution designed to raise the regular army to its full strength of 100,000 by recruiting 20,000 new men.

March 15.—The Senate unanimously adopts the resolution increasing the regular army.

March 16.—The House, by vote of 346 to 14, repeals the provision of the Underwood Tariff law that sugar should be imported free of duty after May 1, 1916.

March 17.—The Senate adopts a resolution offered by Mr. La Follette (Rep., Wis.), approving of the use of the army to punish the Mexican raiders and assuring Mexico that the expedition's single purpose is to arrest and punish; the bill reorganizing the army is reported from the Committee on Military Affairs by Chairman Chamberlain (Dem., Ore.).

March 18.—The Senate Committee on Military Affairs reports the Army Reorganization measure, which would establish a peace strength of 194,586. . . . In the House debate on the Army Reorganization bill, Mr. Hay (Dem., Va.) asserts that the measure embodies the President's views.

March 20.—The House rejects an amendment which proposed a regular army of 220,000, instead of the 140,000 as provided in the Army Reorganization bill.

## AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

February 19.—The South Carolina legislature passes a bill prohibiting the employment of children under fourteen in factories, mines, or textile establishments.

February 23.—The American Can Company is declared by the United States District Court at Baltimore to be a legal combination, and the Government's plea for dissolution is refused.

March 7.—The President nominates Newton D. Baker, former Mayor of Cleveland, to be Secretary of War (to fill the vacancy created by the resignation of Lindley M. Garrison on February 10th). . . . The first Presidential preference primary is held, in Indiana, President Wilson (Dem.) and former Vice-President Fairbanks (Rep.) being endorsed without opposition; in the Senatorial contest, Harry S. New (Rep.), John W. Kern (Dem.), and James E. Watson (Prog.) are nominated. . . . The voters of Vermont reject a Statewide prohibition amendment by a large majority, and ratify a Presidential primary measure.

March 11.—Allan L. Benson, of New York,\* is chosen as the candidate of the Socialist party for President, in a primary conducted by mail.

March 14.—In the Minnesota primaries, Senator Cummins, of Iowa, wins the Republican endorsement for the Presidential nomination in a three-cornered contest.

March 20.—Thomas Taggart is appointed United States Senator by the Governor of Indiana, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Mr. Shively.

## THE AMERICAN EXPEDITION IN MEXICO

March 9.—A band of 1500 Mexican brigands under Gen. Francisco Villa crosses the border and attacks the town of Columbus, N. M., and the camp of the Thirteenth United States Cavalry, killing nine civilians and eight troopers; Major Tompkins and sixty troopers pursue the raiders fifteen miles into Mexico; more than 100 Mexicans are killed.

March 10.—President Wilson and his cabinet decide to send an adequate force into Mexico to punish General Villa.

March 13.—The United States agrees to allow the forces of General Carranza to enter American territory, when necessary, in pursuit of bandits, in return for the unopposed entrance of American troops into Mexico in pursuit of Villa.

March 15.—A military expedition to punish Villa enters Mexico; infantry, cavalry, and artillery (reported to be 6000 in number) cross the Arizona border in two columns, moving southward from Columbus and Hachita, under command of Brigadier-General John J. Pershing and Colonel Dodd.

March 7.—The "flying column" of cavalry under Colonel Dodd reaches Casas Grandes, having penetrated sixty miles into Mexico in two days.

March 18.—Wireless reports from the American army in Mexico state that General Pershing is personally leading a flying column, and that Villa is believed to have reached the mountainous Guerrero district of Chihuahua, near Babicora.

March 20.—The American forces in Mexico are reported to be moving southward, fanlike, in three columns.

## FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

February 29.—It is reported from Mexico City that Felix Diaz (a nephew of the former President) has entered Mexico from Guatemala, to join the revolt in Oaxaca against Carranza.

March 13.—The voters of Manitoba Province, Canada, adopt prohibition.

March 15.—The province of Kwang-si, China, joins in the revolt against the Yuan Shih-kai government.

## INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

February 18.—The United States Senate ratifies the treaty with Nicaragua, under which the United States secures two naval bases and the right to construct a canal across Nicaragua, in return for the payment of \$3,000,000.

February 22.—In a review of Russia's international affairs, Foreign Minister Sazonov declares in the Duma that Russia will put forth all efforts to bring about a commercial rapprochement with the United States.

February 28.—The United States Senate ratifies the treaty establishing a financial and police protectorate over Haiti, designed to stabilize government and discourage insurrections.

March 4.—The Liberal and Conservative parties in Panama request the United States to supervise the Presidential election in July.

## OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

February 21.—Representatives of anthracite coal operators and miners confer at New York City in an endeavor to settle without a strike the controversy over wages and hours.

February 22.—A rear-end collision on the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad, near Milford, Conn., results in the death of ten persons.

March 5.—The Spanish passenger steamer *Principe de Asturias* founders on a rock off Santos, Brazil, with a loss of 450 lives.

March 8.—Representatives of bituminous coal miners and operators, after four weeks of discussion, reach an agreement upon wages and hours of labor of 400,000 men; wages will be increased from 5 to 13 per cent.

March 11.—W. C. Robinson, holder of American long-distance flying records, is killed by a fall from a height of 13,000 feet, at Grinnell, Ia.

March 16.—A report of the committee of scientists who visited the Canal Zone declares that navigation through the Canal is not likely to be seriously interrupted again, and makes specific recommendations for arresting slides.

## OBITUARY

February 19.—Bishop John W. Shanahan, of the Roman Catholic diocese of Harrisburg, 69.

February 20.—K. F. Arnoldson, a Swedish winner of the Nobel Peace Prize, 71. . . . Ludwig Braun, the Bavarian battle painter, 80.

February 22.—Brig.-Gen. Henry Clay Cook, U.S.A., retired, a famous Indian fighter, 79. . . . Karl Begas, a noted German sculptor, 70.

February 24.—Admiral Hugo von Pohl, until recently commander of the German fleet, 60.

February 25.—Joaquin D. Casaus, former Ambassador from Mexico to the United States. . . . David T. Watson, of Pittsburgh, special counsel for the government in international cases, 72. . . . 82.

William Edward Norton, a well-known marine artist of New York, 73.

February 27.—Rev. Thomas Coke Carter, bishop of the United Brethren Church, 65. . . . Bradford P. Raymond, former president of Wesleyan University, 69.

February 28.—Henry James, the famous novelist, 72.

March 1.—William E. Werner, associate judge of the Court of Appeals in New York State, 61.

March 2.—Elizabeth, Dowager Queen of Rumania, and a widely known writer under the pen name of "Carmen Sylva," 72. . . . George W. Palmer, a former Representative in Congress from New York, 98.

March 3.—Jean Mounet-Sully, the celebrated French tragedian, 75.

March 4.—Brig.-Gen. William Sooy Smith, a noted civil engineer and staff officer in the Civil War, 86. . . . Brig.-Gen. Charles H. Noble, U. S. A., retired, 73. . . . Prof. William Angus Knight, the eminent English teacher of moral philosophy and authority on English literature, 80. . . . Rev. Robert W. Haire, of South Dakota, a pioneer advocate of the initiative and referendum, 70.

March 6.—Richard A. McCurdy, former president of the Mutual Life Insurance Company, 81.

March 7.—Rear Adm. Asa Walker, U. S. N., retired, one of the commanding officers at the battle of Manila, 71. . . . Charles F. X. Alexander Chauveau, a distinguished Canadian banker and jurist, 69.

March 8.—John McLean Nash, treasurer of Columbia University for more than thirty years, 67. . . . Fred T. Jane, the English writer on naval subjects, 45. . . . Dr. William L. Rodman, president of the American Medical Association and prominent Philadelphia surgeon, 58.

March 9.—William G. Brown, Representative in Congress from West Virginia, 60. . . . Lord Ronald Sutherland Gower, sculptor of the Shakespeare monument at Stratford, 81.

March 10.—George Henry Emmott, dean of the faculty of law at University of Liverpool, 60.

March 11.—Henry Gassaway Davis, former United States Senator from West Virginia and Democratic nominee for Vice-President, 92.

March 12.—Theodore Voorhees, president of the Philadelphia & Reading Railway, 69. . . . Samuel T. Maddox, justice of the Supreme Court of New York, 63. . . . Chief Thundercloud, the famous Blackfoot Indian, 59.

March 13.—Seymour Eaton, a widely known Philadelphia author and journalist, and creator of proprietary library systems, 57. . . . Anson D. Morse, professor emeritus of history at Amherst College, 70.

March 15.—Capt. Hiram S. Chamberlain, a prominent Tennessee business man, 81.

March 17.—Mrs. Julia Frankau ("Frank Danby"), the English author, 51. . . . Gilbert Ballet, the famous French neurologist.

March 18.—Henry Wolf, a noted wood engraver, 63. . . . Frederick Norton Finney, former president of the Missouri, Kansas & Texas Railroad, 85.

March 19.—Cardinal Girolamo Maria Gotti,



# NEW FOREIGN CARTOONS



## CHINA WILL NOW BEGIN TO ADOPT EUROPEAN CULTURE

YUAN SHI-KAI: "The more I look westward, the more thoroughly I am convinced that the fundamental principle of all culture is might."

From *Nebelspalter* (Zürich)

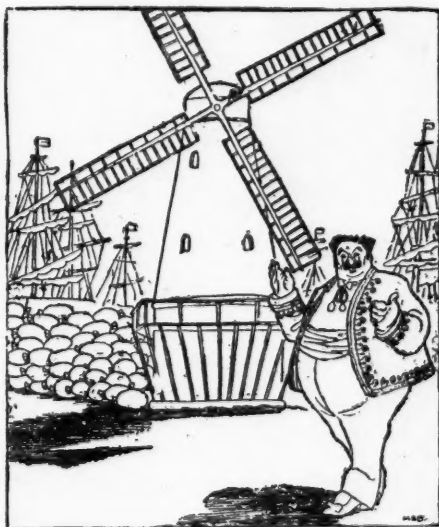


## AND ENGLAND SPOKE:

"I am noble and good, and desire to take American commerce also under my care."

(A satirical German reference to British interference with merchant ships from the United States)

From *Ull* © (Berlin)



## THE NEUTRAL MILL

"Whatever quarter the wind blows from, our mill will always bring us in a jolly good profit!"

(The neutral countries have been kept busy furnishing supplies to the warring nations)

From *Odesski Listok* (Odessa, Russia)



## AT WASHINGTON

The seance between President Wilson and Ambassador Bernstorff (over the German submarine question) continues.

From *Le Rire* (Paris)



## GERMANY AND HER PROBLEMS

How shall she settle with the Allies?  
Give them lead.  
How with Uncle Sam?  
He prefers gold.

From *Il Fischietto* (Turin)



## UNCLE SAM AND MRS. GERMANY

THE ENGLISHMAN: "Every day he sends notes to her!"

THE FRENCHMAN: "Yes, that is what makes the high price of paper!"

From *L'Esquella de la Torratxa* (Barcelona)



## AMERICA'S GIFTS TO EUROPE

(Ammunition and aeroplanes are being handed over to warring Europe,—showing that even in Greece the view of Uncle Sam as a profit-making munition seller is not unknown)

From *Hellas* (Athens)



## UNCLE SAM'S "NOTE" ACT IS PLAYED OUT

The poor man dashes around trying to give out Note Number 39. But he gets no attention any more. The joke is too old.

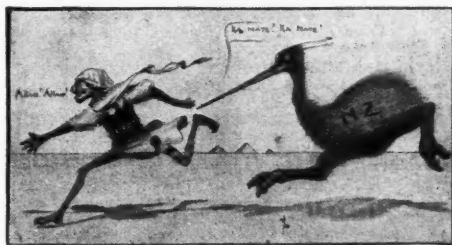
From *Il 420* (Florence)



THE GERMAN LOANS

"If you take two marks, and put them in turn into three pockets that makes six marks in all three pockets!" —Helfferich.

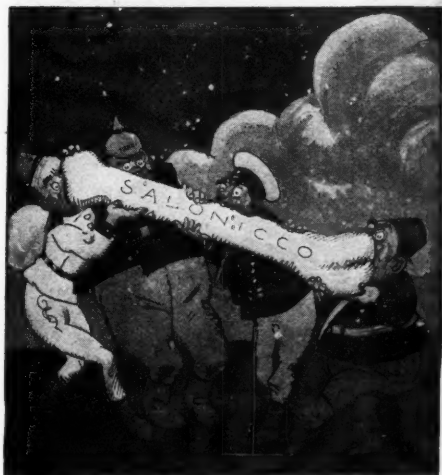
The three peasants, who represent the first, the second, and the third German loan, say "Alas, Helfferich, that does not help us" (punning on the German minister's name). From *De Telegraaf* (Amsterdam)



THE CAMPAIGN IN EGYPT

(The Senussi are on the move again, pursued by the New Zealanders, who are represented by the ancient New Zealand bird, the moa)

From the *Herald* (Auckland, New Zealand)



SALONICA IS A HARD BONE FOR THE TEUTON POWERS TO PICK

From *l'Asino* (Rome)



THE ALLIES' BACKWARD OFFENSIVE

"They are already falling off one after another. What will happen when the beast begins to trot?"

From *Nebelspalter* (Zürich)

GERMAN war finance does not escape caustic criticism from outside countries, as is shown by the Raemaekers cartoon on this page. Going from the "sinews" of war to its "bones," Salonica seems to be as big a job for the Teutons to tackle as the Dardanelles was for the British.



THE BRITISH LION

He does not like the Dardanelles bone—it is too strong! From *L'Esquella de la Torratra* (Barcelona)



## BACK SCRATCHING

THE BULGARIAN TOAD (swelling to burst): You have proved yourself the King of Beasts.

THE GERMAN HOG (after the blood feast): And your last leap was wonderful! One more, and—um—yes!—you'll be there! From *New Zealand Observer* (Auckland)



## THE BALKAN TANGLE

BELLONA: "Now, then, let me see how you unravel this."

BRITANNIA AND FRANCE: "Well, you shall see!"  
From *Hindi Punch* (Bombay, India)



## THE RUMANIAN POSITION

RUMANIA (to the Russian representative, who offers Odessa and Bessarabia): "Your goods are certainly fine; but in the first place, we are neutral, and, second, we must see what the other side has to offer."

From *Nebelspalter* (Zürich)



## GERMANY'S SCIENTIFIC WARFARE

THE GERMAN SCIENTIST (surrounded by his inventions—Zeppelins, submarines, asphyxiating gas, petrol, bacilli of disease, incendiary bombs, etc.): "What can we invent next to punish those who accuse us of barbarity?" From *La Baionetta* (Milan)



## "THE LUCK OF EDENHALL"

The goblet held by King George is inscribed "Oriental Dominion," and the reference is to the legend in the poem: "If this glass shall fall, farewell to the luck of Edenhall"; in other words, British failure in the East will be a serious blow to the Empire.

From *Lustige Blätter* (C) (Berlin)





AT THE EUROPEAN GAMING TABLE

GERMANY AND AUSTRIA: "Gentlemen, shall we quit? We have won enough."  
 THE OTHERS: "No! We'll play on. Perhaps our luck will now turn."  
 From *Nebelspalter* (Zürich)

The question of peace has come up periodically during the war, each time accompanied with somewhat different propositions. The attitude at one time assumed by Germany, of the winner who is ready to quit with his gains, is expressed in the Swiss cartoon above, while the Russian cartoon indicates that the Allies will insist on Germany's giving up these same winnings as a preliminary to peace. The Italian cartoon reflects the refu-

sal of the Allies to nibble at any peace bait from the German side at all.



A DIFFICULT POSITION

PEACE: "If you want to catch me, you'll have to put all those things down!" (The bundles are labeled France, Belgium, Poland.)  
 From *Odesski Listok* (Odessa, Russia)



A TRAP WHICH DOES NOT WORK

KAISER: "The devil! In spite of this wonderful Peace cheese, not a single mouse has sprung the trap."  
 From *La Baionetta* (Milan)

# MEXICAN BORDER PICTURES

*(Copyright by the American Press Association)*

## I. VILLA AND HIS BAND



VILLA (SECOND FIGURE FROM THE RIGHT) AND HIS MEN INSPECTING A NEW LOT OF RIFLES



VILLA'S BAND IN ONE OF THEIR VILLAGE STRONGHOLDS

## II. SCENES AT COLUMBUS, NEW MEXICO, AFTER THE VILLA RAID

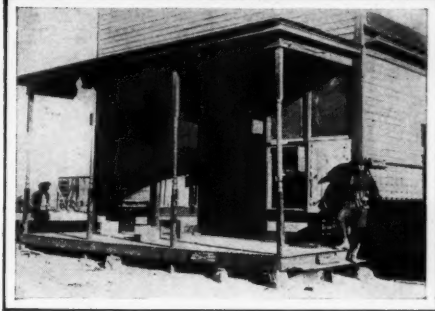


VIEW OF THE TOWN THE MORNING AFTER THE VILLA RAID ON MARCH 9

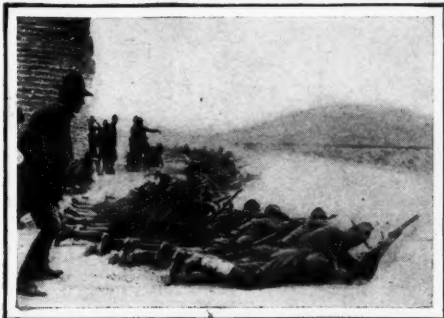
**T**HE little town of Columbus, New Mexico, on the Mexican border, was suddenly attacked before daylight on March 9 by Villa, the Mexican bandit, with about 1500 men. They burned houses, killed eight Americans, and took much loot. Troops of the Thirteenth Cavalry drove the bandits off and pursued them into Mexico, killing many before turning back. The following Wednesday (March 15) an expedition of some six thousand Americans under General Pershing entered Mexico to capture Villa.



TRYING TO IDENTIFY ONE OF VILLA'S MEN FOUND DEAD AFTER THE FIGHT



THE STORE AND POST-OFFICE THAT WAS LOOTED AND WHOSE PROPRIETOR WAS KILLED



INFANTRY GUARDING THE TOWN

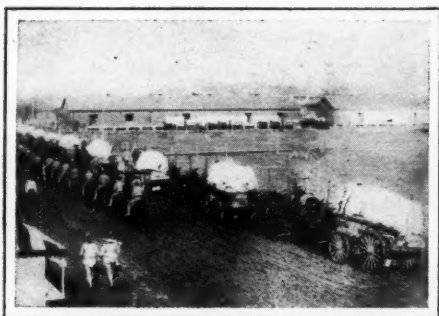


A SENTRY ON GUARD

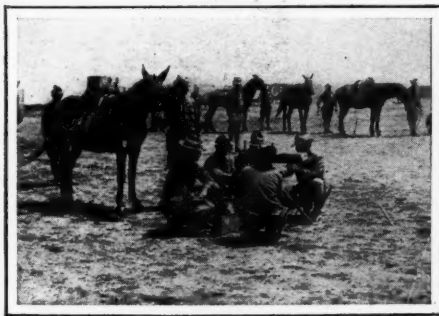
### III. THE AMERICAN EXPEDITION AGAINST VILLA



ARTILLERY TROOPS, AS THEY CROSSED THE BORDER INTO MEXICO



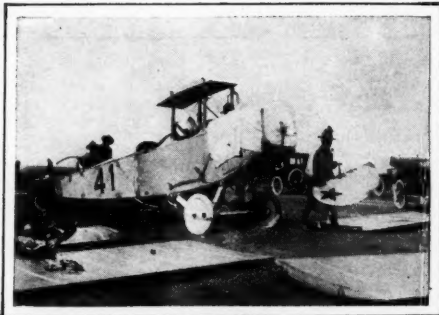
TROOPERS AND SUPPLY WAGONS ON THE ROAD



A MACHINE-GUN OUTFIT



FIELD WIRELESS EQUIPMENT BY WHICH GENERAL  
PERSHING KEEPS UP COMMUNICATION WITH  
THE UNITED STATES



UNPACKING THE AEROPLANES FOR SERVICE IN  
MEXICO (A SQUADRON OF EIGHT MACHINES  
WILL BE USED)





Photograph by Bain News Service

BRIGADIER-GENERAL JOHN J. PERSHING, U.S.A., IN COMMAND  
OF THE EXPEDITION FOR THE CAPTURE OF FRANCISCO  
VILLA IN MEXICO

## PERSHING ON THE TRAIL

AS long ago as 1887 General Miles, one of that group of Indian fighters and plainsmen whose valor gave distinction, if not glory, to our little army in the years succeeding the Civil War, thought it worth while to commend officially a young lieutenant of the Sixth Cavalry for "marching his troop, with pack train, over rough country, 140 miles in forty-six hours, bringing in every animal and man in good condition."

The young officer—he was a second lieutenant, only one year out of West Point—was John J. Pershing, a native of Missouri, who had come out the year before, just in time to join the operations that resulted in the rounding up of Geronimo, the famous Apache chief whose depredations and treachery had engaged the attention of Generals Crook and Miles for a period of two years

and had severely strained the resources of the entire United States Army as it was at that time organized.

It will be recalled that the wily Indian who defied the United States Government so successfully for so long a period had to be pursued into Mexico over some of the same ground now being traversed by the American expeditionary force in search of Villa, before he could be captured. A similarity at once suggests itself between the operations of 1916 in that forbidding land and those of 1885-87. In each instance the renegades were supplied with arms and munitions of American make, were thoroughly familiar with the mountainous country in which they took refuge, were ready to stop at no act of cold-blooded atrocity to accomplish their immediate purpose, and were animated by consuming ha-

tred of their pursuers, tinged possibly by a strain of contempt.

#### TWO "PUNITIVE" EXPEDITIONS

We introduce this comparison merely by way of showing the eminent fitness of having the present difficult undertaking of our army entrusted to the hands of one who knew intimately the difficulties, pitfalls, and dangers innumerable that surrounded the expedition of thirty years ago. Said the veteran scout, James H. Cook, who went with the Eighth Cavalry into Mexico in 1885, speaking of the advance of Pershing's columns into Mexico last month: "The only thing that makes the expedition look hopeful to me is my faith in the men who command it." (Mr. Cook was also referring here to Lieutenant Cabell, now Chief of Staff to General Pershing; he, too, was on the Geronimo expedition.)

On March 15, 1916, General Pershing, at the head of a cavalry column far more imposing than that which he had commanded, as a lieutenant, twenty-nine years before, rode across the international boundary into Mexico and within forty-two marching hours, despite the lack of water and the roughness of the country, covered 110 miles. For so large a body of mounted men, this average advance of thirty-three miles a day compares not unfavorably with the record made by the same officer in 1887. The vim and dash that then won praise for the young subaltern now command, in the seasoned general, the whole country's admiration.

#### APPRENTICESHIP AS INDIAN FIGHTER

General Pershing spent ten years in the Southwest, and that period of service, even if he had had no further training as a soldier, gave him precisely the equipment and seasoning required for the work that has now been committed to him. That decade of soldiering included, in addition to the pacification of the Apaches, the adjustment of difficulties between the whites and hostile Zunis in Arizona, and participation in the last Indian campaign that our army has been called upon to make—that against the Sioux in 1890-91. All in all, when Pershing was ordered east in 1896, he had seen about every form of active service that was possible at that period for any officer of our army. Furthermore, he had learned the nature of that whole region described so admirably in this number of the REVIEW by Mr. Adams, and, by coming to close quarters with our Indian problem in some of its most acute aspects, he

had found out how to cope with the hostile movements of a savage enemy in his own habitat. All this experience was in later years to bear fruit in a distant part of the world, where our Government and our army unexpectedly came into new and strange responsibilities and duties.

The brief Santiago campaign in the war with Spain meant little to Pershing save that it gave him his chance as an officer in the Tenth Cavalry (colored troops) to display a coolness and bravery under fire which his colonel, a veteran of the Civil War, said he had never seen equaled. He was promoted for gallantry at the battle of El Caney.

Like Lawton and others of our army officers who had served an apprenticeship at Indian fighting in the Southwest, Pershing was sent to the Philippines to help reduce the insurgent native population to a state of order. The magnitude of this task has never been appreciated in the United States. The military censorship, rigorously applied for several years, stood in the way of any accurate knowledge in this country of what was being done by our officers in the Philippines. Much of this work, it is now known, was most onerous and exacting. To several officers whose names were rarely mentioned in American newspapers were entrusted duties such as have earned for British commanders in like circumstances enduring fame.

#### SUBDUING THE MOROS

One of the most difficult of all the tasks required of our army in the Philippines was the subjugation of the hostile Moros in the island of Mindanao. The performance of this unpleasant duty fell to Captain Pershing. The raids of the warlike Moro tribes on the coast towns of the island were checked by Pershing's brilliant victory in the fight at Bayan, but the Sultan of Bacolod remained obdurate, and the various strongholds of this tribe had to be demolished before obedience could be secured. After forty of these forts had been destroyed, with a loss of only two American lives, the subjection of Mindanao was completed and Pershing became the military governor.

#### A MOHAMMEDAN TRIBUTE

Strange as it may seem, the American commander's resolute performance of his duty, his strict fulfillment of every pledge, and his carrying out of every threat, won for him the affection of these rude people whom for three hundred years the Spaniards had failed to conquer or to rule. They formally

elected Captain Pershing a Datto of the tribe, conferring on him the power of life and death, so that he is to-day perhaps the only American army officer entitled to serve as a Mohammedan judge.

#### PROMOTED BY ROOSEVELT

From time to time Pershing was called upon to put down minor uprisings among the Moros, the last occasion of this kind being only three years ago. In each instance, however, the loss of American lives has been slight, and Pershing's mastery of the situation has been recognized by all familiar with the facts.

In 1906 President Roosevelt promoted

Pershing from Captain to Brigadier-General over 862 other officers. Although this is said to be a record "jump" in the history of army promotions, it may well be regarded as having been not only merited but actually earned by General Pershing's brilliant and complete success in the accomplishment of most difficult and arduous work in the routine of his profession. At the age of fifty-six, after thirty years of service in the army (most of those years actually in the field), it may be said that no American officer is better entitled to high command and none more worthy of the nation's confidence as regards the special duty to which he has been assigned, than John J. Pershing. W. B. S.

## NORTHERN MEXICO

THE SCENE OF OUR ARMY'S HUNT FOR VILLA

BY CYRUS C. ADAMS

**I**F we were to cross our southern frontier at Columbus, the point where Villa dashed into New Mexico on his murderous foray, we would not be surprised to see that the two republics thereabouts, far north and far south of the boundary line, are geographically identical. Both are parts of the Sierra Madre plateau, as it is called. Both stand over 3000 feet above the sea, both are surmounted by lines of hills trending north or northwest, and both have the same natural vegetation. We call this predominant formation a plateau, but the Mexicans call it a *mesa*, or "table." One country simply merges, by political agreement, into the other.

At El Paso, however, a little farther east, is a broad, natural demarcation of the two countries—the deep, wide trench which the Rio Grande dug for itself; and if we clamber up the steep, south slope of this trough, to the Mexican plateau, we shall find ourselves floundering in a waste of deep sand from which, however, we shall soon emerge upon the hard, stony, undulating surface of the plateau.

In briefly sketching some features of this northern part of Mexico where the present campaign will write a new chapter in history, it may be said at once that there is no such thing as a correct map of its surface forms and rivers; and particularly in the central and western parts of the country, most

of all among the mountains, many thousands of square miles are still white on the maps because they are so little known. This is to the advantage of Villa, who carries all the geography he needs in his head, while we have not all the Mexican geography we need even on paper.

During most of the month of March, Villa was reported, from time to time, to be at one or another of the plateau towns, at Galeana, for example, about 160 miles south of Columbus, or at Casas Grandes, about 110 miles from that frontier town, both settlements standing on the same river, the Rio de Santa Maria. Our troops, soon after the invasion, appeared to be advancing towards these towns; and there are quite a number of hamlets scattered along the rivers of this unique and interesting region.

#### ENCLOSED RIVER BASINS

Very little rain falls on this wide part of the plateau, but the rivers give vivid green to their banks and many a hamlet is supported by the irrigation of the riverine lands. These rivers have their sources among minor mountain ranges extending roughly parallel to one another and in a general north-south direction. The mountains are not very high, rising only 2000 to 3000 feet above the general level; but standing on the high plateau with their summits at least 7000 or 8000 feet above the sea, they are able to condense

a great deal of water vapor; and the brooks, cascading their way down the slopes, create the useful little rivers that make ribbons of verdure far north and south. They are miniature Niles in the bleak gray and yellow wastes of northern Mexico. All these rivers are what are designated as "enclosed basins"; that is, they empty into lakes which have no outlet to the sea and which, of course, are saline.

#### THE MORMONS AT CASAS GRANDES

Some of the towns along the streams are very interesting. Casas Grandes, for example, is the home of a large Mormon colony which, with the permission of the Mexican Government, left our country to start life again on the Mexican plateau. It was this colony of peaceful and harmless folk that Villa, it is said, intended to destroy simply because they had come from the United States. Brutal as he is, he perhaps never had such a thought. At any rate, no evil has befallen them thus far. The present settlement is partly surrounded by the ruins of an ancient people in which many archeological finds of value have been made.

#### MOUNTAIN AND PLAIN

Towards this region of enclosed river basins our troops have appeared to be moving, with Villa still lingering there. If he has any chance at all to save his life it is in the West, and then only after he reaches the tangle of mountains which fill the eastern half of Sonora. Many persons have supposed that the fugitive need travel for a hiding place only a short distance west of this river region; but there are reasons why he might find no security there, and they relate to the nature of the country and the disposition of the inhabitants.

We see on many maps of the region west of the Santa Maria River, what appear to be a number of mountain ranges extending north and south. Some of them are elevations standing considerably above the general level, but they are not mountains; and some large areas in this poorly mapped territory where mountains are thickly sprinkled on many maps, are really portions of the central plateau where farm crops are raised and cattle are counted by the tens of thousands. This happens to be the case with a large region to the west of that part of the plateau where Villa was reported to be in the middle of March. Between the rivers of the enclosed basins and the great jumble of mountains that largely fill up the western

part of northern Mexico are comparatively level expanses which are being put to economic uses and, in less troublous times, are numbered among the important centers of productive enterprises.

#### FERTILE LANDED ESTATES

The basin of the Rio San Miguel, the most westerly of the enclosed basins, is normally the center of much productivity. In this valley are some of the largest haciendas of Mexico. Here stands a considerable part of the landed property of General Terrazas. We know nothing of his fortunes in recent troublous years; but before them, it was said that one might travel for more than 200 miles in the State of Chihuahua without setting foot outside this man's lands. His herds and horses were grazing on a thousand hills and he did not know himself how many head of live-stock he owned. This is one of the best corn-growing regions in the republic. An American named Green has concessions comprising some 4000 square miles, lying a little further west, fringing the Sierra Madre, and including areas of Chihuahua that are richest in agricultural and mineral resources.

#### THE SIERRA MADRES

These are only striking illustrations of the fact that a great deal of enterprise in various lines is carried on, under normal conditions, in a large region between Villa's latest reported retreat and the western mountains where there might be some difficulty in apprehending him; and it is possible that, instead of seeking a refuge in some part of the central plateau where the industries of civilization are making considerable progress, he may prefer at once to push on to the nearly pathless Sierra Madres. This would mean a journey of some duration if he were to reach the middle or the seaward ranges of this system which embraces several nearly parallel lines of mountains all called the Sierra Madres.

All the border ranges of northern Mexico which hem in the central plateau present striking contrasts between their opposite sides. The inland faces of these mountains slope rather gradually down to the plateau, while the seaward slopes are almost precipitous and are furrowed with deep crevasses and gorges. Erosion is most intense on the western side of the Sierra Madres. As a rule, it is almost impossible to build wagon roads on this Pacific slope. The roads are atrociously bad even on the plateaus; wagons





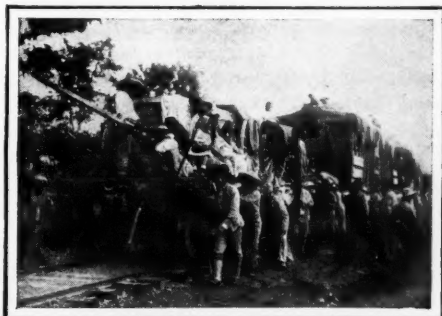
THE REGION ENTERED BY GENERAL PERSHING LAST MONTH IN PURSUIT OF VILLA AND HIS BAND

are mired on the open prairies or in the bridgeless streams. Transportation is an especially serious matter in the mountain regions. The existing solution of the problem is the use of pack trains of burros and mules. Hundreds of these trains carry supplies west and return light for additional loads such as iron water-pipe and parts of machinery.

The finest forests are those of the so-called long-leaved pine growing at elevations of over 7000 feet above the sea. These forests are at least 1000 to 1500 miles nearer the great mines of Arizona and New Mexico than the forests of Washington and Louisiana from which they now receive their wood

supplies. The inaccessibility of the Mexican plateau, owing to inferior transportation, has made it impossible to secure the Mexican supply.

An insufficient quantity of water is the great lack of northern Mexico. Very few streams are navigable even by small boats. We can scarcely call the Rio Grande a Mexican river, for it rises in our own country and Mexico makes very small contribution to its volume. Most of the streams are scarcely more than mountain torrents. The Rio Grande becomes an imposing river before it touches Mexico, though it gives little promise of what it grows to be where most tourists see it in our far West.



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VILLA'S FOLLOWERS WITH THEIR FAMILIES ON FREIGHT CARS



© American Press Association,

U. S. CAVALRY TROOPERS IN PURSUIT OF VILLA AND HIS BAND

# OUR FOREMOST WAR WRITER

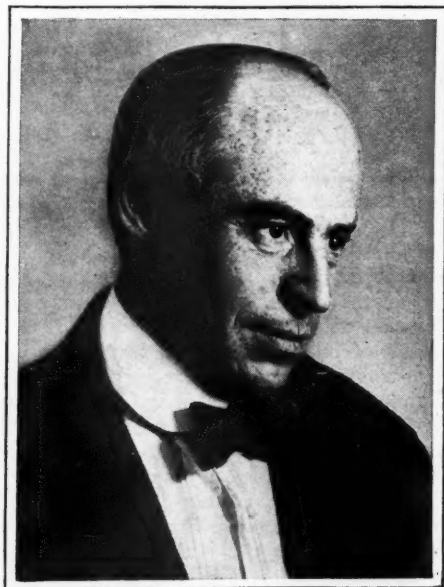
**D**URING the past year and a half of the Great War, no issue of this magazine has appeared without an article from the pen of Mr. Frank H. Simonds. We are well within bounds in saying that no other series of articles on the war in its many phases by land and by sea, involving political as well as military considerations, has been so widely approved as these monthly reviews and estimates occupying ten or twelve pages of each issue of this REVIEW. The Simonds articles have been as eagerly read by the officers of our army and navy as by professors and scholars in the universities and by intelligent readers of all classes throughout the entire country.

Let us hasten, then, to assure our readers that the absence of a Simonds article in this number does not mean that the series has come to an end, but that our gifted contributor, a few days after writing the instalment that appeared in the March REVIEW, sailed for Europe in order to spend a little time at the front, as well as in two or three capitals, planning to gain first-hand impressions, and to have a few weeks of what he calls "vacation." We are hoping that a contribution from his pen may be at hand in time for publication next month.

It is needless to tell our readers that Mr. Simonds has the gift of a remarkable literary style. His statements are terse and condensed, but they are vivid and illuminating. Writing here at home about military movements in France, Belgium, Poland, or the Balkans, he has been better able to make the reader see things as if with his own eyes than have most of the so-called "war corre-

spondents" who have flooded the newspapers and periodicals with descriptive matter produced in the hotels of London, Paris, and Berlin. There have, indeed, been given us many interesting sidelights upon conditions in European countries in brilliant correspondence from the warring countries. But these men have not been in a position to know much concerning the larger movements of a war that is in progress all over the world. The best place to see the war as a whole, thus far, has been New York. Mr. Simonds has been in possession of many sources of information converging here.

More important, however, than anything else has been Mr. Simonds' own previous preparation. From early boyhood he has been intensely interested in political history, world geography, and military movements as bearing upon political changes. Our readers will have noted the readiness and felicity with which Mr. Simonds constantly



MR. FRANK H. SIMONDS

cites Civil War situations, Napoleonic campaigns, the movements of the Franco-Prussian War, and the military lessons of the Russo-Japanese War, as aiding his readers to understand things that have been happening in the past year and a half. He was already saturated with knowledge of the larger military and political aspects of all modern wars.

Furthermore, he had recently been in the Balkan regions as a student of the formidable and instructive wars which had immediately preceded this great struggle. He had visited at different times other parts of Europe in accumulation of that amazing topographical knowledge which is disclosed in many of his recent articles. Doubtless, also,

his ability to write about military matters owes something to the fact that in 1898 he enlisted in a Massachusetts regiment which was sent to Cuba and Porto Rico, although it had no chance to do any fighting.

At that time Frank H. Simonds was a student in Harvard College. He had grown up at Concord, near Boston, and inherited the traditions of the men who fought in the Revolution. After his brief experience in the Spanish War he returned to Harvard, where he graduated in 1900, coming at once to New York to take part in social settlement work and municipal and political reform movements. From Citizens' Union work he was soon projected into New York journalism as a political writer. His first connection was with the staff of the *Tribune*, where, as a reporter already versed in city and State affairs, he had opportunity to become still more intimately acquainted with the men and the issues prominent during the past decade or two. In due time he was sent to Washington as a correspondent of his paper. There followed a brief period of work for the New York *Evening Post* as Albany correspondent, and then came employment in the offices of the New York *Sun*, where good writing and keen political insight have always been so certain to find appreciation. After periods as special political writer and then as a writer of *Sun* editorials, Mr. Simonds was made editor of the *Evening Sun*.

When the great war broke out, every reader in and about New York bought all of the papers—in the first instance for the news, but with only less of demand for interpretation. In most papers, so-called "military experts" tried to tell of mobilization, topography, equipment, fortifications, and many other things. It was not long before the discriminating readers discovered that upon the editorial page of the *Evening Sun*, in extra leaded type, there was appearing every day an article, often two or three columns long, of a quality so far beyond anything else in the newspapers that there was no comparison to be made. These articles were sufficiently technical, without being tediously so. They showed unfailing knowledge of European diplomacy; of German, French, English, Russian, and Austrian politics; of Balkan conditions past and present; of military history, method, and practice. And they disclosed a grasp upon the history and principles of strategy that surprised and delighted the best trained of our younger men in the army and navy.

As a craftsman, it would be hard to find a journalist more skilled and efficient than Mr. Simonds. He can choose his attitude, decide upon his method, marshal his facts and points, set apart a given number of hours, and produce exactly the kind of article he had meant to write, occupying the space he had intended, divided and proportioned according to his chosen plan, and invariably finished and delivered, ready for the printers, at the moment previously agreed upon. Nothing but the most conscientious training in self-mastery can produce finished work in any art or craft or profession. Perhaps it is the instinctive feeling that Mr. Simonds knows how to do his work that has made the good workers in all fields so appreciative of the way in which he deals with his materials.

Early last year Mr. Simonds was urgently invited to go back to the newspaper with which he had begun, and accordingly he became associate editor of the New York *Tribune* and the chief exponent, on the editorial page, of that newspaper's views and policies. The *Tribune* has been taking strong grounds in these strenuous times in domestic politics as well as in the discussion of the foreign relations of the United States. Mr. Simonds has thrown such intensity, vigor, audacity, and unconventional freedom into his *Tribune* editorials as to remind that paper's oldest living subscribers of the days when Horace Greeley made the *Tribune* a household word and its aggressiveness in controversy a cause of joy to some and of wrath to others. Mr. Simonds as an editorial writer is an apostle of the American spirit, a believer in principles rather than expedients; and he does not hesitate to use sensational or sentimental language when these seem best suited to catch attention or to stir feeling.

But so fine a workman is Mr. Simonds that from writing a passionate editorial upon a point of national honor, or a column of biting attack upon public men who have not earned his approval, he is able to turn to an estimate of conditions in Europe with a poised judgment, a detached mind, and the gift for measured historical narration that he has exhibited each month in his articles for this magazine. When a man of German name writes to us that Simonds has been bribed by the British Ambassador into writing pro-Ally articles, there is almost sure to be in the same mail a letter from some Englishman or Canadian declaring that Simonds is undoubtedly in the pay of Bernstorff and the Teutons. But the faultfinders have been few and the admirers have been many.—A. S.

# BATTLING AT VERDUN

BY TALCOTT WILLIAMS

VERDUN is under attack for a full month, beginning February 21, because an aggressive war requires a persistent offensive. Unless this is carried on, the spirit of an army chills and the morale of its soldiery deteriorates. Nothing can avoid this. Wellington could wait; Napoleon had to attack. Marlborough parried every blow until at last he struck. The perpetual offensive of his antagonist, Louis XIV, led straight to Blenheim, and in the end to the loss of nearly all the acquisitions of a quarter of a century, crowned early with victory, falling at last in the dire defeat of Ramillies. So, through all European history. The conquering and aggressive power had at last to hunt fields where no harvest can be reaped but deaths, which diminish the aggressive army and at length destroy it.

The only escape from this fate is blow after blow, which costs the least practicable in men and buys the most in moral effect. No one success could affect France as would the reduction of Verdun. Such a break, in the long line of trenches from the Vosges to the Channel, might make it possible to strike across to Switzerland, force the surrender of Nancy, leave Belfort in peril, and cut off from France all the territory east of a line from Verdun to Épinal by threatening communications.

A blow at Calais could only affect England; and the experience of twenty months shows the Channel to be an inexpugnable bar. A serious attack on Paris has ceased, under modern conditions, to be feasible. A break in the trenches would mean only more trenches and then still more trenches.

## IMPORTANCE OF THE FORTRESS

Verdun is a prize, visible to all, conspicuous to the world, appealing to the imagination of every Frenchman. It is the last of the great fortresses with which France has sought to defend its northern frontier. There, too, France was born. There, in 843, Charles, Louis, and Lothaire, the sons of Louis I, the "Debonaire," the Pious, divided the Empire of Charlemagne, brought France and Germany into existence, began the modern map of Europe, and sowed the seeds of

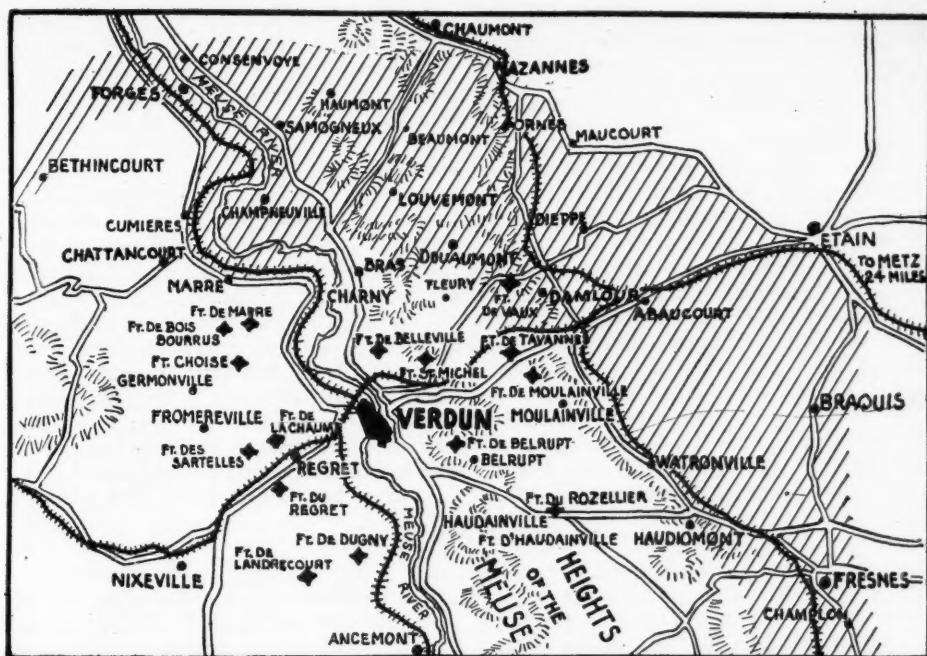
war from that day to this present hour. Awarded to Germany then, it came back to France under Henry II in 1552. From that day on, this place, the junction of the road that runs down the Meuse to Belgium and the road that goes straight as an arrow-flight from Metz to Paris, has been a great fortress. A Benedictine abbey was razed to put on its foundations a royal keep. Vauban planned its defenses. It was the one great place of arms in the north which, in 1870, made an honorable surrender. The Republic has put about it an encircling ring of forts.

Its plateau rises a steep 400 feet above the valley of the Meuse on the west and on the east has a short pitch of 200 feet above the plain dotted with lakes feeding the stream, Louvois. This plain the German army in the fourth week of August occupied with a rush which carried the Crown Prince down to St. Mihiel on the Meuse, some twenty miles above Verdun. The fortress whose outer works to the north look out on a plain dotted with hills carved out by the streams that seek the Meuse was the screen behind which the French army, driven back in defeat after it had cut the railroad between Strassburg and Metz, was able to reform on the line of the Marne. But for the delay this fortress caused, the three army corps under the Crown Prince on the southeast of Verdun, and the four army corps under the King of Wurttemberg, would not have been delayed, leaving Von Kluck "in the air," in his swift advance, thus forcing his headlong retreat.

## THE ALLIES' DEFICIENCY IN ARMS

The loss of Verdun at this moment would raise the uncomfortable fear in France that perhaps, after all, the land could be eaten leaf by leaf, like an artichoke. For such a blow, moral rather than material, this is the effective instant to sow apprehension. Every Allied attack has failed, and has failed from plain lacks. No new aggressive is near until the supplies of munitions, guns, and small arms really begin to flow over the Atlantic. Rifles, the crying need of the English army, have yet scarcely gone at all. When our iron, steel, copper, and brass man-





MAP OF VERDUN AND THE SURROUNDING TOWNS AND FORTIFIED PLACES  
(The shaded portion represents the ground covered by the German advance)

ufacturers have been put to the test in the past year, their capacity for accurate work has proved inadequate to meet the exact gauges to a thousandth of an inch needed by modern military weapons of precision. The fuses do not work to minute fractions of a second, as they must when the failure to explode on a given tenth of a second will carry them past the advancing line, to burst harmless in its rear. Cartridges and breech-

blocks do not gauge as they should, as one great corporation has found. In from three to six months, the Allies will be armed on all fronts. To-day their full force is not on the firing-line. It cannot come in full measure to the succor of France under months.

## HEAVY FRENCH LOSSES

Losses, moreover, have been very heavy. France is filling with the maimed, the mutilated, and the disabled. Such rosters of killed and wounded as have appeared—one of teachers, for instance—shows a very large list of fatalities by the side of wounded. The hospital service is insufficient. Naturally, the base hospitals are used for those who can be returned to the firing-line, and the cases of those for whom life holds no hope of again sharing in the war, swamp the resources of villages on which they are billeted and dampen the enthusiasm of West France and daunt the Midi. Two army corps from the latter region broke early in the war. It gives the one spot in the French forces of which one hears strange and depressing rumors. Taken as a whole, the Allies match in their great task any land and any people—most of all France, the incomparable. But the moment has come, known to all, when a tide hangs and does not turn. A serious



THE RELATION OF VERDUN TO THE ENTIRE  
WESTERN FRONT  
(German territory shaded)

disaster to a French stronghold now will mean more than it could earlier or would later.

#### WHAT WOULD BE A GERMAN GAIN

The German plan at Verdun looks to no sweeping blow. The war has seen no more careful attack. The German losses are pronounced heavy by the French and reported light from Berlin. Some loss can be more than made good. If the Germans can close the long reëntrant angle northeast from St. Mihiel to Verdun and west to Varennes, so that the line runs across from St. Mihiel to the latter place, the new line will take, according to conditions, from 75,000 to 150,000 less men, because fifteen miles will be closed up. This is a German gain. Of the 400 square miles or so about Verdun, about 135 square miles were won by March 20. This area varies as the line is run and these figures can be but approximate. The German defense and offense would be greatly improved by the taking of Verdun, even if nothing else followed, and under conceivable circumstances 4000 square miles of France east of the line drawn from Verdun through Épinal, already noted, to Switzerland would have to be abandoned. The French right in Champagne would be seriously threatened and would fall back twenty-seven miles to a level with St. Menchould, the next fortress west of Verdun.

#### NEW METHODS OF ATTACK

But neither the prize nor the conditions admit of the wholesale German charges delivered early in the war at Ypres and elsewhere. The advance in mass has ceased. The Germans (the French despatches agree with those from Berlin) have not thrown forward more than from three to six regiments at once. Taking war conditions, and the way units wear down, this does not mean more than 5000 to 12,000 in any one charge. In such a rush officers can lead their men, and the daily bulletins are full of the way German officers have gone to the front. Officers can affect a line of this size because it fills a front in which every man can see the officers who lead. In such charges as occurred earlier in the war from 40,000 to 60,000 men were thrown forward. This would cover a front of twenty-five to forty miles, according to the ground. The individual commanders are lost. If three to six regiments make the charge, every man can see that his officers are sharing his fate.

A new method has, therefore, come into

operation. An artillery fire over a wide area is no longer used as it once was. A very heavy rain of shells and shrapnel is concentrated over a definite share of the trenches. These are pulverized and a charge on a front of not more than a mile, often less, rushing a width of 100 to 200 yards, occupies the region beaten up and repeats the same process a week later. Whether Paris or Berlin is right as to the losses in such an attack no one can say. They may easily be relatively light. The ground favors the advance. Detached hills, woods, and rolling ground give cover. The movement on Verdun has been very gradual. It has taken a month to push a little more than six to eight miles. No effort has been made to throw men forward on a large scale. The line has been advanced by fragments. Positions have been taken, lost, and retaken on both sides.

#### LACK OF DATA

Are the Germans reporting the unwounded prisoners taken accurately? No one can say. If fewer prisoners were taken, then the concentrated artillery fire has destroyed men. If the German reports are accurate, the result thus far is not encouraging to the French. Large captures relative to the men in the trenches may show that at this point the French line is weak. Is it? No one can tell. The Allies are committed to the policy of attrition. This suggests small forces in the trenches instructed to hold their ground, firing into the advancing line and reducing its number, even at the loss of the men who stay and are captured in the trenches, having killed off from four to five times their number.

Here, as with so much else in this war, no exact facts are available. The losses of France no one knows, or whether its line is growing thin. Less than it was, it must be. The Bulgarian and Turkish armies have been added to the forces of the Central Powers. The Italian addition to the Allies has not matched this. The English loss and the English force are not known. The published German figures only record the loss of about one-half the army with which the Dual Alliance of Germany and Austria-Hungary entered the field. Both antagonists have lost so heavily that they cannot afford any general publication, and the relative strength to-day is uncertain to the amount of at least a fifth of the forces engaged, enough to decide the battle.

At Verdun, as in all the issues of the war



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**A TRENCH IN THE DOUAUMONT HILLS (THE TRENCH EXTENDS BACK FROM THE CENTER OF THE PICTURE)**  
(On these hills are the village and Fort Douaumont, early taken by the Germans, while the French continued to hold trenches on that part of these low elevations towards Fort Vaux)



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**THE MARSHES OF CHAMPNEUVILLE**

(Below Verdun, to the north, the Meuse spreads from its narrow valley through the fortress itself, to fertile lowland and marsh, on which is this village)



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**A VIEW OF THE PLAIN OF THE WOEVRE**

(Looking east from the steep scarf of Verdun stretches this plain, across which the Germans drove their way through the French trenches)

as it stands, only the event can decide. Verdun may be won or lost on one side or the other or remain a gage of battle when these lines are read. Nor will the decision one way or the other alter any whit the real future of the war. This rests on the moral stamina with which one antagonist or the other bears the slow process of exhaustion. Each is under a pressure such as no previous war has ever known. Every engagement leaves the German league weaker in its copper, lead, clothing, rubber, and supplies, with a loss of men. The Allies are losing men, but not supplies. Food each can furnish on a scale large enough to keep up the fight. Which will first begin to feel that the war is hopeless and that a longer struggle is useless? This will decide who is beaten.

#### WHAT THE GERMANS HAVE ACCOMPLISHED

Verdun might, by its loss, turn the scale for Germany if a great blow sweeps it away. But this slow loss, waiting on both sides, has less effect on the imagination or the resolution of men. The German forces began the attack the last week of February. They first pushed back the French line from its salient, one side running from Chaumont, Azannes to Etain, where the road from the north, running southeasterly, crosses the road direct from Verdun to Metz, twenty-four miles from Metz. The salient at this cross-road turned and ran southwest along the road to St. Mihiel. This operation cleared a plain, a flat triangle about fifty miles by four, whose long base carried the German line to the foot of the steep rise which is the eastern side of the Verdun plateau. This took a week to March 1. In the next week, up to March 5-7, the German forces cleared the ground north of this plateau, adding to the 100 square miles about thirty square miles more. The approach is easier here than to the east. The difference of elevation is less and there are scattered hills whose tops match the plateau and, where it is cut by the Meuse, overlook parts of the plateau.

The first week, February 21 to March 1, showed a steady daily advance. The next five days showed a steady movement which clipped some six miles off the approach from the north to the outworks of Verdun, the central fortress having about it a ring of forts twelve miles across. A pause followed, to collect ammunition for another attack. This task is of increasing difficulty, as the entire machinery of men and of transportation grow wearied and worn. Both

sides are equally near their base. Both have a free railroad behind.

In one month, after a prodigal expenditure of shells, the Germans are close to the northern and the eastern side of the plateau on which Verdun stands. The eastern front of the plateau, they have not touched at all. Its steep scarf does not tempt assault. On the northeastern corner of the ring of forts about Verdun, Douaumont, an outlying work, has been picked up. On the northwest corner, a partial lodgment is claimed on Dead-man's Hill. Returning to the northeast corner, Vaux has been attacked, with no immediate result. When a stronghold is attacked, but not beleaguered, all military history shows how long and dubious may be the assault.

As the loss or the holding of Verdun will have a moral and not a material effect on the war, so the operations around the fortress are a test of the morale of the troops on each side and not of the skill of the commanders or the superiority of the artillery. The steadiness with which the French people view the advance shows how little their fears are awakened by the approach on Verdun. What effect its capture or its successful defense may have only the event can prove.

#### GERMANS PRODIGAL OF TIME, SAVING OF MEN

Whether Verdun is captured or stands its ground, depends upon whether the successful assaults on a trenched strip, six to eight miles broad, taken in detail and beaten flat by artillery, before the attack, prove to be as successful on forts and casemates. Time is needed for this and the new German policy at Verdun is to be lavish of time and economical of men. No one could tell, when a pause followed the first assault on Fort Vaux, whether this was a mere delay, until guns and ammunition were moved up, or a check which showed that a method successful with the trenched plain could not break entrance into a round of forts.

The future of the war may hinge on the solution of this military problem, not alone for Verdun; but for the conduct of campaigns elsewhere. Granted that a plain, seamed with trenches, if there be time, guns, munitions and men, can be carried piecemeal, as has been done about Verdun—does this apply to a chain of forts such as make Germany's final line of defense on the West and East fronts, or such as have grown, inside the Allied line, on various fronts?



# RUSSIA'S CONTRIBUTION TO THE WAR

BY STANLEY WASHBURN

[Mr. Washburn, who is one of the sons of the late Senator W. D. Washburn, of Minnesota, has had a striking career as war correspondent, explorer and traveler since he graduated from Williams College fifteen years ago. His experiences in the Russo-Japanese War were thrilling and noteworthy. During a great part of the present war he has been with the Russian armies as special correspondent of the *London Times*. He contributed an article to this REVIEW on a battle near Warsaw early last year. Few men are so well informed as to the part Russia has been playing and is yet likely to assume in the pending struggle. The present article is fresh from his pen, having been written last month just before his sailing from New York to resume his arduous duties with the Russian armies.—THE EDITOR.]

WHAT one knows about Russia in this war may be likened to what one sees of a floating iceberg. About seven-eighths of the iceberg is submerged. It seems to the writer that at least seven-eighths of the Russian achievements and sacrifices are not understood or appreciated outside of Russia. Even within the country itself lack of publicity has prevented the public from learning the extent to which Russia has contributed to what is to be the ultimate success of the war. Fairly to judge the situation, one must in the first place realize that this is not a war between Russia and Germany. It is a war between the Allies and the group of powers hypnotized by Germany into believing that a community of interest exists between her and these misled nations that she has dragged into her world adventure, or perhaps one might better say misadventure.

## GENERAL EFFECT OF RUSSIA'S CAMPAIGNS

In dealing, therefore, with the Russian campaign one must always keep in mind that each success or failure in the East is of importance only in the degree that it tends to influence the great world situation. Which of the Allies is to give the final blow is of no importance. But it is important that all of the Allies weaken the enemy, so that in the final struggle one of them may give the decisive stroke. It is quite immaterial whether that one be Russia, or France, or England. Every week in the campaign presents changes and it is impossible to judge now from what quarter this decision may ultimately come.

To judge of Russia's contribution to the war, one must get and preserve a great perspective of the whole theater of war and realize that if Russia breaks the final Ger-

man strength under the walls of Moscow and gives the French the chance to get the decision in the West, she has as much played her part as though she had allowed the Germans to get to Paris and then herself ended the war before the gates of Berlin. With this perspective, then, let us consider what Russia has been able to offer on the altar of the common cause as her portion toward the ultimate success of the Allies.

## RUSSIAN SACRIFICE SAVED PARIS

At the beginning of the war, as is now well understood, the Russians had not planned an immediate offensive. Their policy was to defend their frontiers while their huge strength was mobilizing. The rush on Paris in the West, however, threatened the cause of the Allies, and almost over night the Russians decided to embark on a hastily planned offensive in East Prussia. The impetus of this attack swept the Russians through the favorite province of the Kaiser, and in ten days the Unter den Linden was filled with panic-stricken refugees that had fled before the avalanche so suddenly launched from the East. At a critical moment in the West, when the German vanguard was almost within sight of the Eiffel Tower, the Germans shifted an important body of troops from the West to protect the East from Russian inroads. The Russians say that six corps were sent to East Prussia, while the French claim it was but four. But the figures are not material. What we know is that after their departure for the East came the battle of the Marne and the turning point of the war.

The Russians paid for this by the loss of almost their entire East Prussian army, but



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IN A RUSSIAN TRENCH IN POLAND



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OPERATING A FIELD TELEPHONE ON THE SNOW-  
COVERED GROUND



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FRATERNIZING WITH PRISONERS AROUND THE  
CAMPFIRE

GLIMPSES OF THE RUSSIAN ARMY IN THE FIELD

they say their sacrifice saved Paris. History, no doubt, will establish the facts, but on the evidence available at present their claim seems logical and will, I believe, be ultimately credited to them as their first great contribution to the Allies' cause. This single phase of the war alone proves that there is such a thing as victory in defeat when that defeat was achieved by the enemy at the cost of the weakening of another front and the consequent victory of an ally in a more strategically important theater of operations. The loss of East Prussia and of one entire army was a mere drop in the bucket of Russia's sacrifices, while, on the other hand, the failure of the Germans to take Paris in 1914 promises to stand out of the war as one of the great turning points in the world's history. So much for Russia's first entrance into the European theater of operations.

#### DRIVE TO CALAIS THWARTED BY RUSSIA

In October, 1914, the Germans, piqued perhaps by their failure to follow up their northern successes, decided to take Warsaw. What happened? They reached the very outskirts of the city and were hurled back to their own frontier at a time when they were just beginning their fierce drive to Calais. And what was looming in the East just then? Another group of Russian armies, this time threatening the invasion of Prussia from the Polish frontier at one point and Silesia at another. At a time when the Germans needed every possible man to break through in Belgium, they were again obliged to divert huge bodies of troops to protect their own frontiers in the East. Army corps after army corps came into the Polish theater of operations. Outnumbered in men and munitions, the Russians fell slowly back on the Bzura line in the North and the Dunajec line in Galicia, fighting battle after battle and taking their toll of hundreds of thousands of Teutons and Austrians.

But they were defeated, says the critic in America. True enough, the Russians gave back. But what happened in the West? A point which the Germans believed spelled destruction to the English was saved, and to balance this what had the Germans to show in the East? Losses for themselves and their ally that ran not far short of 300,000 to 400,000 and the gain of—what?—nothing in particular except the opportunity to attack Warsaw itself, which they did for nearly ten months longer. I cannot say how many troops the Germans diverted to the East at this time, but probably not far short

of between fifteen and twenty army corps were operating against Russia. Here again we have a Russian defeat and Allied victories, but again Russia must be credited with having made a great contribution to the common cause.

#### IMPORTANCE OF AUSTRIA'S DEFEATS IN GALICIA

The early fighting in Galicia cannot, I think, be counted as much of an asset to the Allies, inasmuch as it represented in its early stages what might be called a private quarrel; but when it became so successful as to threaten Silesia there developed a real menace to Germany. This menace was checked with the second advance on Warsaw. The Russians, however, never disappointed or discouraged, began immediately to do to the Austrians what they had failed to accomplish against the Germans; and in the early days of January and February, 1915, we find the Russians pushing the Austrians back over the Carpathians and at last taking their great fortress Przemyśl in March of that year.

Heavy drives in the Bukovina by Russian corps so threatened the Hungarian plain that Hungary itself became dissatisfied and for a brief period the Dual Monarchy was threatened with a collapse which would have seriously imperilled the German plans. Russian successes, too, no doubt helped to bring Italy into the arena. In May, then, when beyond a shadow of a doubt the one thing that the Germans longed for was to strike decisively in the West, they found their neighbor, on whom they depended for protection on the South, so involved in disaster and with dissipated *morale*, that they were obliged practically to suspend their big movements in the West and turn toward imperturbable Russia, who, inch by inch, was eating away the prestige and the armies of their ally.

#### STRATEGIC VALUE OF THE GREAT RETREAT

There followed then the terrific drive in Galicia and the campaign in the Baltic provinces. The Russians—again outnumbered and practically destitute of munitions—were forced to retire and they did so in perfect order, trading Galician acres which had formerly belonged to Austria for German lives which the Germans could not spare. Corps after corps of Germany's best came by express train to the East, until at last the Germans were maintaining between thirty-three and thirty-seven corps on the Russian front and sending thousands to fill

the losses which the Russians were taking daily from their ranks. Then came the fall of Warsaw and the spectacle, which must have been a sad one to the Germans, of their iron jaws snapping at air, while the Russian army in excellent order slid away into its wind-swept spaces to the Eastward. In their fury to secure a decision the Germans followed on and on into that desolate plain of Russia, always losing heavily and scoring little, until at last their momentum ceased entirely. Many of them will say and do say that the German line stopped because it had reached its appointed place. But I, who have been there and know the country, can say that the German line stopped its advance for the same reason an arrow falls to earth—because it had no longer any impulse to advance. Their line to-day runs through meadow and forest and swamp just where it stopped in the fall, because it could not advance further.

What then is the summing up of the summer campaign?

#### RUSSIAN DEFEAT GAINED VALUABLE TIME FOR THE ALLIES IN THE WEST

It is simply this. Germany pursuing the entire summer a will-o'-the-wisp until fall, when we see the German army settled down in the snow with spirit gradually evaporating for want of local success to keep it going. What has Germany gained? Russian prisoners and limitless acres of bleak landscape which will come back to Russia by treaty without a fight at all when the decision comes for the Allies, which, I believe, is inevitable, whether it be now or whether it be one or two years from now. And what has Germany lost? Perhaps a million in casualties in the East since March and the loss of the opportunity to strike during the summer in the West. And what has been going on in the West all this time? Preparation. With what result? We have seen it in the last weeks at Verdun in the spray of German infantry dashing against the rocks of the French phalanx and the French defenses, Germans gaining each inch and foot of terrain by the shedding of German blood in torrents.

The reader will say, "Ah, yes, but the Russians have been defeated in the East." True enough; but it has taken so much to defeat the Russians that the Allies have had time to prepare themselves, so that the Germans, as it now seems, cannot break the Western line with the hope of gains commensurate with the cost. Does the reader

imagine that if the thirty-five German corps operating in Russia this past summer had been available in a block to throw against the Allied line in France or Belgium in May that Paris would still be in French hands? Russian defeats purchased for the Allies these priceless days during which they were able to make their line almost impregnable. And thus again we can trace Russia's contribution to the war.

#### PLENTY OF MUNITIONS NOW

I have written a little about Russian reverses, but I think so far there has been little to indicate to the outside world how very little these reverses mean to Russia as a whole. The retirements were due to practically no other cause than the lack of rifles and munitions. Warsaw was lost because there were no shells for the Russian guns. The Germans may deny this, but a million denials would never convince me because I was there. Time and again I saw Russian caissons coming at a gallop from fifteen miles in the rear to replenish batteries that were silent for want of shells. The day before Warsaw fell I saw battery after battery limber up and come out of strategic positions because there was not a shell left. The condition as to rifles was almost as bad. Millions of men were in uniform, but could not go to the front for want of rifles. When the world learns, as it will eventually, the meager effective force with which Russia was fighting all last summer, it will consider it an amazing thing, not that the Russians were beaten, but that the Germans did not utterly destroy them.

By latter September the scale began to turn, and with the final check of the Germans in the fall was dissipated their last great chance against the Russians. It is true that they may this year push them here and there, but never again will they find Russia unprepared. With millions of men available for her colors and with the arsenals of the world working for her, tools are daily being placed in the hands of the Russians with which to hew out their destiny this coming summer.

#### THE GRAND DUKE NICHOLAS

Before mentioning future possibilities in Russia, it seems worth while to touch briefly on the subject of the Grand Duke Nicholas Nicolaievitch, and his removal from the chief command of the Russian army—a matter which has been of much interest to the world in general. In any huge army it is



sometimes difficult to trace exactly the source of the greatest strength governing a campaign. Generally plans and strategies are not the outcome of the ideas of any single individual, but represent the resultant of innumerable influences. In writing of the Grand Duke and the part he has taken in the war, I can only give the opinion which I have myself formed after having met him and practically all others in high command, from the Czar down to innumerable lesser chiefs of armies and individual units. My own opinion

is that Nicholas Nicolaievitch is in one way the greatest man Russia has produced since Peter the Great, but not in the least in the way that the world believes. I do not think he brought to the war enormous sagacity or extraordinary military capacity; and I question if he is responsible for more than a fair portion of the strategies evolved in the campaign. What he did contribute to Russia was a great personality and an extraordinary character which at the beginning of the war was a far greater asset than mere brains, for there were others who had intellectual capacity greater than his.

But in the beginning, when bureaucracy was frantically trying to direct and control the elemental forces which the war loosened on the world, the Grand Duke towered above every other single figure in Europe.

#### A TOWERING FIGURE AND A GREAT MORAL FORCE

He was a great moral force replete with patriotism, sincerity, courage, and the iron will that swept from his path intrigue and petty quarrels. Men of more finesse might have been found to conduct the strategy and tactics of the campaign, but there was no man in Russia who could have held that great cosmopolitan army together as a cohesive

unit through the first chaotic year of the war save only the Grand Duke Nicholas. I think that Russia owes more to his character than to any other single factor in the whole war.

It is impossible for me to express an opinion on the exact share that he had in dictating the strategy of the campaign. Personally, I think he dictated little but the policies to be followed and dealt meagerly with the actual problems. If one believes reports, the two policies which he favored preëminently and which he is said to have forced through by

his own iron will are the two which have proven the greatest mistakes. These were the campaign to pierce the Carpathians and enter the Hungarian plain, and the turning out of the population before the German advance. The former failed for lack of munitions and because it instantly brought down superior forces of the Germans into Galicia, which was certain to be the case when the menace against their ally became sufficiently acute. The driving of the population before the retreating army and the destruction of property before the German advance no doubt annoyed the enemy



THE GRAND DUKE NICHOLAS NICHOLAIEVITCH

greatly, but the military values secured therefrom to Russia were, and are, relatively little compared to the human and economic problem they have created, for to-day they have on their hands 13,000,000 refugees wandering about the highways and byways of Russia.

#### ALEXIEV, RUSSIA'S GREAT MILITARY GENIUS

It is my opinion, after having met practically every important commander in Russia, that Alexiev, the present Chief of the General Staff, and subordinate only to the Czar and who is the real commander-in-chief of the army, is to-day the greatest military intellect in Russia, if not in the entire armies of all the belligerents. It is interesting to

recall that Alexiev was the Chief of the Staff of Ivanov during the days of the Galician successes at the beginning of the war. It is said, though I have not the evidence to prove it, that Alexiev did not concur in the advance in the Carpathians and was therefore removed to the command of the Warsaw front, where he had nothing whatever to do in planning that ill-fated enterprise. Incidentally it may be remarked that with his departure the successes in Galicia soon ceased, and simultaneously with his appearance on the Warsaw front the defense was stiffened up. It seems that in America the credit for the strategy and tactics of the Warsaw campaign is given entirely to the Grand Duke; this view I have not the slightest hesitation in opposing. I am positive that the last defense of Warsaw and the great retreat that followed was entirely due to the skill of Alexiev himself, for I was with his staff many times during those critical days and in almost every army engaged in the movement. That it was his skilful hand that engineered the escape of the Russian armies must, I think, be clear to the military observers who watched this same clever mind directing the strategy and tactics which resulted in the escape of the Tenth Russian Army from the beleaguered and all but surrounded Vilna, at a time when the Grand Duke himself had already gone to the Caucasus.

#### WHY THE GRAND DUKE WAS SHIFTED

And now comes the question as to why the former commander-in-chief was removed from the absolute command. While it is difficult to answer this exactly, I am of opinion that there were a number of reasons which brought this removal about. In the first place, it must be known that the Czar himself is a man of much sentiment, and that he was only detained from going to the front in person at the outbreak of the war by weightier considerations of state in Petrograd. It is said that in the Japanese war he had wished to be with his troops. In this campaign his desire became more and more acute as the army retired. This feeling on the part of the Czar was no doubt the real reason for the removal of the Grand Duke, the action crystallizing through a political situation which developed in Petrograd after the loss of Warsaw. The moment the Polish capital fell there began in Russia a propaganda which sought to assure the people that the war was lost and that the Czar himself was seeking an excuse to make an inde-

pendent peace. These rumors, undoubtedly instigated by the Germans, ran riot all over Russia, and at last began to drift back to the army and to threaten seriously its morale. Official denials were of no avail.

As a political move the taking over of the command by the Emperor was an excellent one, for when it became known that he was going to join his troops the rumors of an independent peace evaporated overnight, for the people said: "If the Czar were going to make peace, he would do it now, and say that the Grand Duke had lost the war and he had no alternative but peace. But when he takes command it means that he takes the responsibility of the future on himself and is staking his dynasty on victory." This feeling was increased when it became generally known that the Emperor had taken with him the little Grand Duke, the heir to the dynasty of "All the Russias." In any event, the bubble of an independent peace and of a monarch plotting to betray his Allies was burst once and forever. This and his own sentiment are probably the dominant reasons which prompted the Czar to send the Grand Duke to the Caucasus.

#### NO BREAK BETWEEN THE CZAR AND THE GRAND DUKE

It is probably true that there were, and have been, many intriguers at work against Nicholas Nikolaivitch since the beginning of the war. With a ruthless hand he was sweeping aside the incompetents, whether prince or peasant, and there were many who hated him bitterly. It is probable that there were those who tried to persuade the Emperor and the Empress that the giant commander-in-chief was plotting to overthrow the dynasty. I cannot, of course, speak as to what extent this influence governed, but having met and talked with both the Grand Duke and the Emperor, I am of the opinion that the Grand Duke never had a disloyal thought for his monarch, and that the Czar never conceived that he had. I believe their relations were excellent. I know that the last act of the Grand Duke before he gave up his command was to invoke from his staff the same devotion and support for the Emperor that they had given to him and I know likewise that he commended in the same way to all with whom he spoke intimately, the new chief-of-the-staff, General Alexiev. I think there never has been anything small about the Grand Duke, and I question if he ever had a petty thought in his life. His is a great moral figure that stalked through

the campaign and then moved off to another field of activity to give place to the Czar, for the reasons I have mentioned above.

#### THE CAUCASUS CAMPAIGN

From a long and intimate association with the Russian Army I am not of the opinion that the Caucasus was ever regarded by the higher command as a major theater of operations, and save for the removal of Nicholas from the European command, I think it would never have become one. When he left the front the Caucasus was the only place of dignity to which he could be sent. The remark ran through the army at the time that when the Grand Duke reached there, he would start larger operations as an outlet to his energy. I do not think that the present move was contemplated until after the Grand Duke took over the Southern command. From my knowledge of the country between Trebizond and Constantinople, and from my observation of Russian transport matters, I am of opinion that it will be many a long month before Constantinople is itself directly threatened from this quarter, but it would rather anticipate that the Russians will follow their successes southward to cooperate with the British in Mesopotamia. The greatest asset that will come out of this movement will be the moral effect on both Bulgaria and Turkey, who had both been induced to believe that Russia was finished.

#### THE JANUARY OFFENSIVE IN GALICIA

In considering Russia's contribution to the general campaign one must not overlook the January offensive in southern Galicia which began almost where it was left off in May—the drives toward the Bukowina. All of this happened since I left Russia and I am not able to speak authoritatively of the strategy or tactics of the campaign but from a knowledge of the situation there in July and

August and acquaintance with the generals involved I am not inclined to believe that this is or will be a major theater of Russian operations. The effect was aimed, I believe, to accomplish two results: First, to interfere with and impede the German-Austrian movements in the Balkans, and, second, to create a moral effect not only on the enemy but more especially on Bulgaria and Rumania. That these results have been achieved seems to be moderately clear. The menace on the Bukowina rendered it necessary for the central powers to divert heavy masses of troops from other fronts to send

against the Russian army, which forces would otherwise have been available against the Allies operating from Salonika as a base. It is clear that the operations of the central powers in the Balkans have faded into insignificance since this recent Russian advance, and for the moment, at least, we are hearing nothing more of the Teuton campaign in the Serbian theater of operations.

The moral effect of this January offensive of the Russians has been, I think, of enormous value. To realize the important bearing that it must have in Bulgaria, one must understand the situation that has existed in that country since the beginning of the war.

#### GERMAN PROPAGANDA IN BULGARIA

The sentiment in Bulgaria was always intensely pro-Russian and somewhat pro-English, though possibly indifferent to the French. During the first months of the war there was every reason to believe that Bulgaria might have been induced to side with the Allies, but at that time her participation was not considered important and the golden moment slipped by. In the meantime German propaganda was working night and day in Bulgaria to convince the people that the Allies' cause was doomed. Moving pictures, lectures, newspapers, and every other



THE CZAR AND THE CZAREVITCH INSPECTING SOME TROOPS

means of publicity known in this day and generation were used by the Germans to present to the people of Bulgaria an unbroken picture of German successes. With the King himself German and with everyone who could be bought working for the German ends, the Bulgarians were half-convinced by May of last year that Germany was going to win. Then came the Galician drive and the spectacle of Russia thrown out of all but a corner of Galicia, and on top of it the shouts of the Germans that Russia was finished. Still Bulgaria hesitated. Then followed the fall of Warsaw and the apparent melting away of the Russian army into the heart of Russia. Simultaneously with this German troops appeared in constantly growing numbers on the Serbian fronts. The Bulgarians, convinced now that Russia was hopelessly lost and the Allies' cause doomed, joined the Teutons.

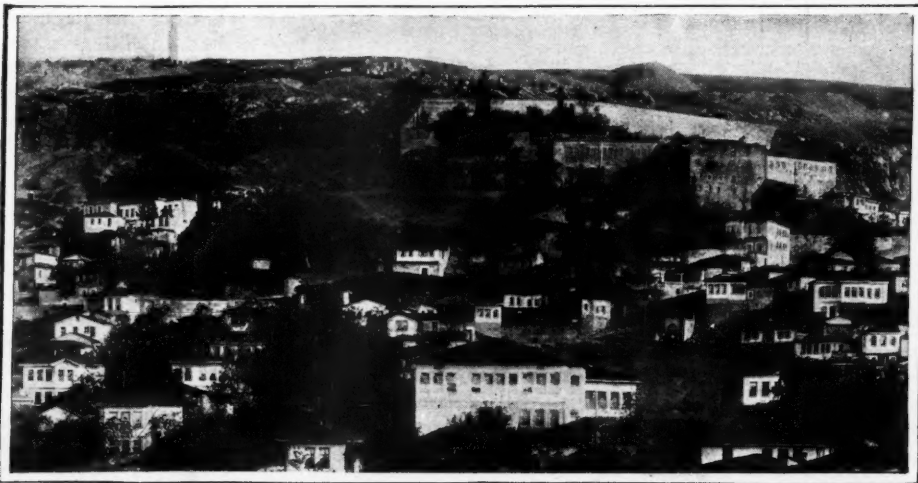
#### BULGARIA'S EYES OPENED

It may be imagined now what the sentiment is in Bulgaria, a nation that has forever forfeited the friendship of Russia, to see the supposed broken armies of the Czar sweeping back into the Bukowina, apparently in the same strength and with an even increased morale over that which they possessed a year ago. Bulgaria, I think, as an active participant in the war will be a constantly waning factor, and one may expect to see the Bulgars avail themselves of the first opportunity to slip back into the fold and make some sort of peace with Russia. Once the doom of Germany is understood in Bulgaria, her allegiance to the Central

Powers will doubtless be shortlived. What has influenced Bulgaria will in a similar degree affect Rumania. The recent Galician offensive, if sustained, will prevent Rumania from entering the war against the Allies, and if further continued may ultimately bring her into the lists as soon as victory seems assured for the Allies.

#### WHAT CAN RUSSIA DO THIS SUMMER?

The question which seems uppermost in everyone's mind in America in regard to Russia is whether or not she will be able to "come back" this summer with an important offensive. This is purely a question of material. It must be understood that there will never in this war be a shortage of men in Russia, and that she can continue raising millions as fast as she can find arms to put in their hands and shells to shoot. The lack of these is the one vital reason for Russian disaster. I am personally of the opinion that by the first of June Russia should have a better equipped and larger army at her disposal than at any time during the war. The Empire of the Czar saw its ebb tide from a military point of view in August and September, 1915, and since then the tide has been coming steadily back. Those who see the German prisoners these days cannot but notice the difference in the men that are now being sent to the firing line. From the point of human material, Germany certainly passed her zenith last summer. Day by day her tide is going out. England and Russia will be ready, really for the first time, to strike effectively in May or June. Who can doubt the ultimate outcome?



Photograph by Bain News Service

A VIEW OF THE CITY OF TREBIZOND, WHICH THE RUSSIANS AIM TO CAPTURE





PART OF THE ENGLISH FORCES IN MESOPOTAMIA

# THE ANGLO-RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN IN TURKEY

By JAMES B. MACDONALD

[The writer of this article, now in Montreal, was for some years connected with the foremost British newspaper in India. He has been a diligent student from the British standpoint of economic, political, and military conditions in Asia, and has also been connected with military organizations in India, England, and South Africa.—THE EDITOR.]

## I.—WHY THE BRITISH ARE INVOLVED

IT is perhaps not generally realized how important the future of Mesopotamia is to the British, or why they originally sent an expedition there which has since developed into a more ambitious campaign. Ever since the Napoleonic period British influence and interests have been supreme from Bagdad to the Persian Gulf, and this was the one quarter of the globe where they successfully held off the German trader with his political backing.

### BRITAIN'S INTERESTS IN THE PERSIAN GULF AREA

It will be recalled that early in Queen Victoria's reign Great Britain engaged in a war with Persia, and landed troops at Bushire in assertion of their rights. Ever since they have policed the Persian Gulf, put down piracy, slave- and gun-running, and lighted the places dangerous to navigation. These interests having been entrusted to the Government of India, news affecting them seldom finds its way into Western papers. Previous to the war a line of British steamers plied regularly up the River Tigris to Bagdad, the center of the caravan trade with Persia. The foreign trade of this town

alone in 1912 amounted to \$19,000,000, and it was nearly all in the hands of merchants in Great Britain or India. Germany exported \$500,000 worth of goods there annually. Basra, farther down the river, exports annually about 75,000 tons of dates, valued at \$2,900,000. It also does a large export trade in wheat.

### OIL FIELDS AND IRRIGATION WORKS

A large irrigation scheme was partly completed before the war, near the ancient town of Babylon, under the direction of a famous Anglo-Indian engineer, Sir William Willcocks. When finished it was to cost \$105,000,000, and was expected to reclaim some 2,800,000 acres of land of great productivity. It will, therefore, be seen that Britain had some considerable stake in the country. In addition to this, the British Government, shortly before the war, invested \$10,000,000 in acquiring control of the Anglo-Persian oil fields, which is the principal source of supply for oil fuel for their navy. By this means they avoided the risk of great American corporations cornering the supply of oil fuel and holding up their navy. John Bull upon occasion shows some



TURKEY, WITH ITS STRATEGIC RAILWAYS AND FIGHTING AREAS OF THE ANGLO-RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN

gleamings of shrewdness. This deal is on a par with their purchase of sufficient shares to control the Suez Canal. The Anglo-Persian oil fields are situated across the border in Persia, and the oil is led in pipes down the Karam River valley, a tributary of the combined Tigris and Euphrates rivers. The native tribes in the neighborhood were subsidized to protect the pipe-line, or, rather, to leave it alone.

This deal years ago informed Germany that the area from Bagdad to the head of the Gulf was her "Garden of Eden," and any attempt to carry German railways south of Bagdad would bring on war. The Emperor William apparently did not mind this opposition by Britain and Russia to his Oriental ambition, provided he could find a passage through the Balkans.

#### HOW THE TROUBLE STARTED IN PERSIA

#### THE SITUATION IN PERSIA

During recent years Persia has fallen into decay. Politically she is more sick than "the sick man of the East." The people have a religion of their own and worship the sun, although quite a number of Moslems have settled in their midst. Being cognizant of German designs to create a great Eastern empire in Mesopotamia and Persia, which would threaten India, Egypt, and the Russian East, Britain and Russia came together and formed a kind of Monroe Doctrine of their own. They said, in effect, northern Persia shall be Russia's sphere of influence, and southern Persia shall be Britain's sphere of influence. They both recognized that a great military power, like Germany, permanently established at Bagdad, with aggressive tendencies, would imperil their Eastern dominions, and both were prepared to make it a *casus belli*—Britain, further, a few

At the time Britain and Russia came to an agreement regarding Persia they were not on so good a footing with each other as they are to-day. In order that neither should get an advantage over the other, it was decided that the Persian gendarmes—about 6000 in number—should be officered by neutrals, and, unfortunately as it turned out for the Allies, they mutually chose Swedes. On the outbreak of war neither Britain nor Russia desired that Persia should be brought into it. The German ambassador in Persia, however, had other views, and suborned Swedish officers in command of the Persian gendarmes. Partly by this means, and partly by Turkish agents, a rebellion was brought about within the Russian sphere. Religion had nothing to do with the trouble in Persia. Turkish forces entered Persian Kurdistan and announced that they were on their way to con-

quer India and the Russian East, while their compatriots would overrun Egypt. These were the fairy-tales with which the Germans had originally enticed the Turks into the war. The Turks were willing to believe them, and apparently did believe them. The responsible Germans had no such illusions, but hoped to attain their ends by causing internal disturbances within India and Egypt. These German canards, put about in war time, have been adopted by some writers in this country as the foundation from which to write contemporary history. It may interest them to know that India possesses the strongest natural frontiers in the world.

## II.—STRATEGIC GEOGRAPHY OF TURKEY

Strategy nowadays is very largely a matter of geography. Modern armies are circumscribed in their movements by the available means of transportation, whether these be by railroad, river, or roadway, and this means geography applied in giving direction to troop movements.

Before entering into a review of the combined Anglo-Russian campaign a preliminary survey of the strategical geography of the war area will make the position more clear.

### STRATEGIC VALUE OF CONSTANTINOPLE

In ancient times the only practical way by road and ferry from Europe to Asia or Africa was by way of the Balkan valleys and across the Bosphorus or Dardanelles. Hence arose the importance of the ferry-house—Constantinople. That city in those days was the center of the known world and the clearing-house for the merchandise of Asia, Africa, and Europe. From Scutari, on the opposite shore, the overland route meandered across Asia Minor to Aleppo in Syria. Here the sign-post to India pointed down the Euphrates Valley, by way of Bagdad, while that to Egypt and Arabia followed the Levant or eastern shore of the Mediterranean. Between each fork lay the Syrian desert. A glance at the map shows the reason why in those days this was the only practical route, as to-day it is the easiest. The wall of the Ural Mountains, the Caspian Sea, the Caucasian Mountains, and the Black Sea shut out direct communication from Europe to Asia, or *vice versa*, except by the Constantinople ferry or a sea voyage.

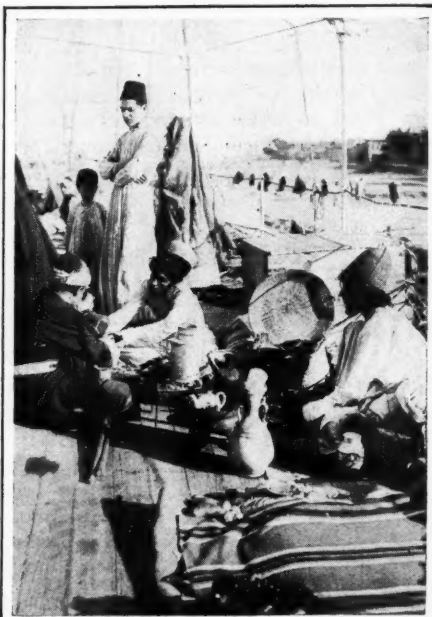
### IMPORTANCE OF THE TAURUS PASSAGE AND ERZERUM

In Asia Minor progress was further barred by the watershed of the Euphrates and Tigris rivers to the south, and the Cau-

casian Mountains to the east. A practical way was found at the lower elevations of the Taurus and Amanus mountains—two parallel spurs which strike the sea at the Gulf of Alexandretta. This narrow neck of the bottle, as it were, is of enormous military importance alike to the Turks and to the British. Through it must pass any army of invasion by land from Europe or Asia Minor to Egypt or India; and, conversely, through it must pass any invading army from Mesopotamia into Asia Minor. If the British should conquer Mesopotamia and should intend to hold it—as they undoubtedly would—they will have no strategical frontiers until they secure the watershed of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers and the Taurus passage. If they secure the latter, Syria, Palestine, and Arabia will fall to them like apples off a tree. It would then be no longer necessary to defend the Suez Canal. The natural frontier of Egypt is the Taurus mountain range. Asia Minor is the real Turkey; the other portions of the empire—Mesopotamia, Syria, Palestine, Arabia, and Turkey in Europe—are only appendages. The eastern door into Asia Minor is Erzerum, and the southern door is the Taurus passage. Turkey can only part with these at the cost of her life. Russia has already captured Erzerum, and the British possess the Island of Cyprus, which commands the head of the Gulf of Alexandretta—twenty miles from the Taurus passage. That is, broadly, the situation.

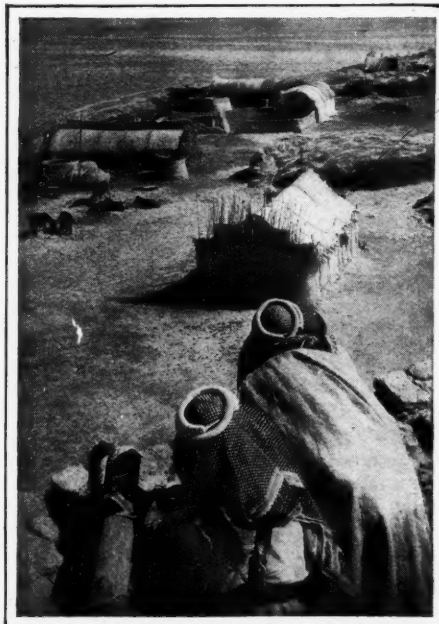
### THE RAILWAY ROUTES TO THE EAST

Near the crossing of the Taurus and Amanus mountains lies the city of Aleppo, the starting-point for the overland caravan routes to Bagdad and India, and also to Damascus, Mecca, and Egypt. Just as surely as pioneer travelers always chose the easiest route, so the railways of to-day follow



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ON THE DECK OF A STEAMER ON THE TIGRIS RIVER  
(A river steamer passing Kut-el-Amara, and showing a typical scene on the deck)



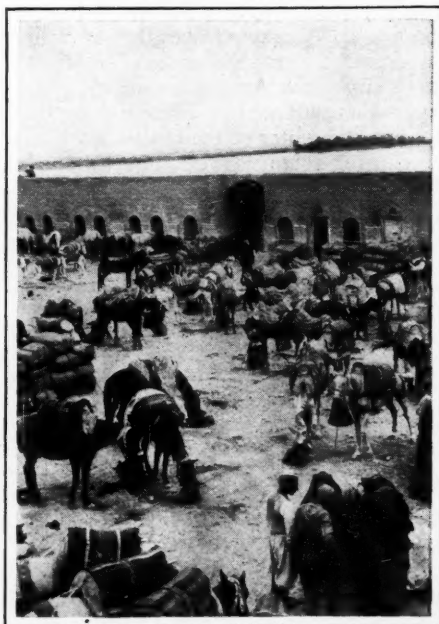
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LOOKING TOWARD SHEIK-SAAD  
(In the territory of the fighting between the Turks and the British relief force under General Aylmer)



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A TURKISH MILITARY TRANSPORT CROSSING THE TIGRIS ON A PONTON BRIDGE



© Underwood &amp; Underwood, New York

A TURKISH MILITARY DEPOT ON THE RIVER, BETWEEN BAGDAD AND KUT-EL-AMARA

### SCENES IN THE MESOPOTAMIAN WAR ZONE



in their footsteps. The physical features of nature constrained both modern as well as ancient armies to travel the same way. Hence a railway map of the Balkans and of Asiatic Turkey is a first consideration in appreciating the strategical bearings of the Anglo-Russian campaign in Turkey-in-Asia, or the alleged rival Germanic-Turkish schemes for the invasion of Egypt, Persia, and India. Of no less importance is a knowledge of the available sea routes and inland rivers.

The ability of Bulgaria and Turkey to carry on the war depends on aid from Germany in men, munitions, and money. These allies are the weakest members of the Central Group, and may be the first to give in if circumstances are adverse to their adventure.

Their sole communication with the Central Powers is by the Balkan railway from the Danube to Constantinople by way of Sofia. If this line is severed, then these nations are out of the game. The Allies have all winter been organizing the defenses of Salonica as a *pied-à-terre* for such an attack. Should Rumania join the Allies in the spring, then a further attack may be expected from the north, in which Russian troops would join. Turkey is now too preoccupied with her own troubles to be able to assist Bulgaria.

#### ALEPPO AS THE KEY TO INDIA AND EGYPT

In Asia Minor the only railway of importance is the trunk line from Scutari, on the Bosphorus, to the Taurus Tunnel, in course of completion near Adana. One branch runs west to Smyrna, and another east to Angora. Beyond the Taurus Tunnel is another in course of completion through the Amanus Mountains. Every person and everything destined for the Bagdad front or for the invasion of Egypt has to be transported over these mountains. So also have rails for the completion of the Aleppo-to-Bagdad railway. These tunnels are expected to be finished this year—when it will be too late. From Aleppo the Syrian rail-

way runs south through Damascus to Medina and Mecca in Arabia. Branches reach the Levant seaports of Tripoli, Beirut, and Haifa. Another railway was started from Aleppo to Bagdad shortly before the war, and construction begun at both ends. We have no reliable information as to how far it has progressed, but the presumption is that there is a large gap between Ras-el-ain and Mosul and between the latter place and Samara.

It is at once apparent how important the city of Aleppo is as the junction for the three main railways of Asiatic Turkey. Napoleon considered that it was the key to India, because it commanded the caravan routes. To-day it would be more correct

to say that Aleppo is the key to the outer approaches to India and Egypt, the inner defenses of which are impregnable.

#### WHY THE BRITISH MAINTAIN A LARGE ARMY IN EGYPT

The British maintain a large army in Egypt not so much because it is required there as because it is a most convenient cen-

tral camp within striking distance of all the battle-fronts in the East. This permits of throwing a large army secretly and unexpectedly where it can be most effective. Similar camps are available at Malta and Cyprus. Any attack on Egypt on a formidable scale would be a veritable trap for the invaders. It will be recalled that when Britain held up the Russian advance on Constantinople, in 1878, she entered into a treaty with Turkey guaranteeing the latter in the possession of Asia Minor (only) against all enemies. The consideration was the lease of the Island of Cyprus, which dominates the Taurus passage. In other words, Britain holds the cork with which she can close the Syrian tube and put the closure on any invasion of India or Egypt from this side. This treaty was abrogated some eighteen months ago, when Turkey declared war on the British Empire. Britain, in consequence, annexed Egypt and Cyprus.



SEPOY INDIANS FIGHTING FROM BEHIND SAND-BAG DEFENSES

### III.—THE BRITISH AND RUSSIAN CAMPAIGNS

#### THE ANGLO-INDIAN EXPEDITION

At the outbreak of the war the Indian Government, apparently off their own bat, despatched a small force to the Persian oil fields to seize and hold the pipe-line, which had been tampered with and the supply cut off for a time.

It became necessary to hold in force three triangular points—Basra, Mu-ham-merch, and Awaz. A strong Turkish force, with headquarters at Amara, was equidistant about 100 miles from both Basra and Awaz, and could elect to strike the divided British forces either by coming down the Tigris River to Basra, or by going overland to Awaz. Reinforcements were sent from India, and Amara occupied. The oil fields seemed secure. Then the unexpected happened. A Turkish army came down the Shat-el-Hai—an ancient canal or waterway connecting the Tigris River at Kut-el-Amara with the Euphrates at Nasiriyeh (or Nasri)—about 100 miles to the west of Basra—and threatened the latter place. (Shat-el-Hai means the river which flows by the village of Hai. Kut-el-Amara means the fort of Amara and is not to be confused with the town of Amara lower down the Tigris River.) This led to the British driving the Turks out of Nasiriyeh and also advancing up the Tigris River from Amara to occupy Kut-el-Amara, where a battle was fought. The Turks were strongly entrenched and expected to hold up the Anglo-Indian troops here, but a turning movement made them retire on Bagdad—about 100 miles to the

northwest. It was known that large Turkish reinforcements were on the way to Bagdad and an attempt was made to anticipate them.

#### TOWNSHEND'S ADVANCE ON BAGDAD

General Townshend advanced on Bagdad with less than a division of mixed Anglo-

Indian troops—some 16,000 to 20,000 strong. At Ctesiphon he found a Turkish army of four divisions, with two others in reserve, awaiting him. After a two days' indecisive battle, Townshend, recognizing he had insufficient forces, retired on his forward base at Kut-el-Amara. The Arabs in the neighborhood awaited the issue of the battle, ready to take sides, for the time being, with the winner.

It says much for the stamina of this composite division that, although opposed throughout by five or six times their number of Turks and Turkish irregulars, the latter were unable to overwhelm them. To the



GENERAL TOWNSHEND, COMMANDER OF THE BRITISH FORCES BESIEGED AT KUT-EL-AMARA

Western mind, unacquainted with the mentality and moral weakness of the Moslem under certain circumstances, this may appear a most foolhardy adventure. To the Anglo-Indian the most obvious thing to do when in a tight corner is to go for the enemy no matter what their numbers. All Europeans in India develop an extraordinary pride in race, and an inherent contempt for numbers. It is the secret of their success there. Most Moslems fight well when posted behind strong natural defenses. In open country, such as Mesopotamia, they do not show to so much advantage. Another trait is that when their line of retreat is threatened they

are more timorous than European troops. This weakness will have important bearings on the future of the campaign on the Tigris Valley, because the communications of the Turks are threatened by the Russians far in their rear and in more than one place.

#### THE BRITISH POSITION AT KUT-EL-AMARA

Townshend's camp at Kut-el-Amara is well supplied with stores and munitions, and will soon be relieved. When his retreat was cut off at the bend of the Tigris River he could still have retired safely by following the Shat-el-Hai to Nasiriyeh. There was no thought, however, of retreat. Kut-el-Amara is geographically of great strategical importance, and the British garrison there has served the useful purpose of detaining large forces of the enemy where it was desired they should remain while important Allied developments were taking place in their flank and rear. Most of these Turkish reinforcements were withdrawn from Armenia when the depth of winter appeared to make it impossible for the Russians to break through the lofty hills of Caucasia.

#### THE RUSSIAN OPERATIONS

The rumor, so diligently put about, that the Grand Duke Nicholas had been retired in disgrace, after so ably extricating the Russian armies in Poland, and that he had been sent to Caucasia, served its purpose. The Turks were deceived by it, and sent part of their forces from Armenia to oppose the Anglo-Indian advance on Bagdad and arrived in time to turn the scale after the battle of Ctesiphon. When the Grand Duke fell on the unwary Turks their defeat was complete. Flying from Erzerum, one army made for Trebizond, another for the Lake Van district, and the rest went due west towards Sivas. The Grand Duke's right wing, center, and left are following in the same directions. He has two flying wings further south—one in the Lake Urumia district and the other advancing along the main caravan route from Kermanshah to Bagdad, while the British are furthest south at Kut-el-Amara. It will be observed that the whole of the Allied armies from the Black Sea to Kut-el-Amara are in perfect echelon formation, and it would be a strange coincidence if this just happened—say, by accident. Like the Syrian and Arabian littoral, Mesopotamia is another tube confined within the Syrian desert on the one side and the mountains of Armenia and Persia on the other. All egress is stopped by the

Allies' echelon formation, except by Aleppo.

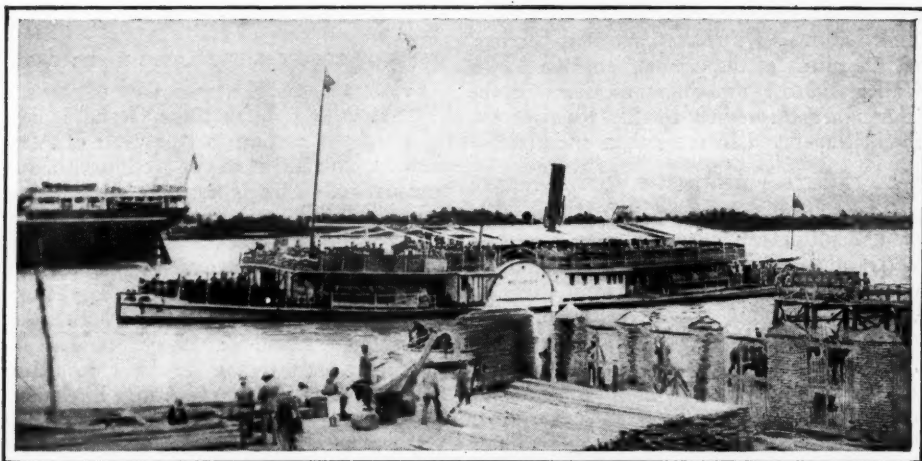
#### RUSSIAN PROGRESS FROM THE NORTHEAST

Petrograd advices at the time of writing (March 9th) state that the Grand Duke's main army is making for the Gulf of Alexandretta with intent to cut the Turkish Empire in two. This is not only possible, but highly probable, and the echelon formation of the Allies, together with the configuration of the country, lends itself to such an operation. The British army in Egypt and the British fleet could in such an eventuality coöperate to advantage.

As a preliminary the Russians must clear their right wing by capturing Trebizond and utilizing it as a sea base. Asia Minor is a high tableland, in shape like the sole of a boot turned upside down, with the highlands of Armenia representing the heel. The Turks, having lost their only base and headquarters at Erzerum, have now to rush troops, guns, and stores from Constantinople to the railhead at Angora and endeavor to rally their defeated forces to the east of Sivas. In the meantime, the Russians will have overrun some 250 miles of Turkish territory before they are held up even temporarily. The Turkish army in Syria will be rushed to Diarbekr to rally their defeated right wing and endeavor to hold the Armenian Taurus Mountains against the Grand Duke's left wing. If the Russians break through here, then all is lost to the Turks in the south. They, however, have a most difficult task before them, because the hills here reach their highest. There is a road of sorts, because we know that Xenophon in ancient times traveled it with his 10,000 Greeks, and the Turks did the same recently, when they sent reinforcements to Bagdad. Both must have traveled light, and the Russians will have to do the same. This means that the Turks on the south will be better supplied with guns than their opponents, who will have to rely once more on their bayonets.

#### BRITISH COÖPERATION ON THE SOUTH

In the extreme south the British have ample forces now to carry out their part of the contract. We know that some 80,000 veteran Indian troops have arrived from France, as well as other large reinforcements from India. It is unlikely that these will all proceed up the Tigris River, because sufficient troops are already there who are restricted to a narrow front, owing to the salt marshes between the bend of the river



ONE OF THE RIVER STEAMERS USED ON THE TIGRIS IN THE BRITISH EXPEDITION TOWARD BAGDAD



AN INDIAN MACHINE-GUN SECTION IN THE DESERT



TURKISH ARTILLERY ON THE ROAD





A TURKISH CAMP IN THE DESERT—PREPARING MEALS



TURKISH ARTILLERY IN ACTION



THE IMPORTANT ANGLO-PERSIAN OIL FIELDS NEAR AHWAZ  
(Hauling material for the pipe lines)

and the Persian mountains. Two other routes are available, the Shat-el-Hai from Nasiriyeh to relieve the garrison at Kut-el-Amara from the south, and the Euphrates River, to attack Bagdad from the southwest, while the Russian flying wing at Kermanshah threatens it from the northeast. The Turkish report of heavy fighting at Nasiriyeh would indicate that one or both of these routes were being taken. Athens reports that Bagdad is about to fall. As it falls, a British flotilla will ascend the Euphrates and make direct for Aleppo. The British army from Kut-el-Amara and the Russians from Kermanshah will, after the fall of Bagdad—which is a foregone conclusion—ascend the Tigris River to Mosul, where they may be expected to get in touch with the other Russian flying wing from the Lake Urumia district. The combined force will then be in a position to force a junction with the Grand Duke's left wing, and then continue their advance on Aleppo.

Should the main army of the Grand Duke, as reported, converge on the Gulf of Alexandretta with intent to destroy the Turkish southern army, then the latter would be in a very dangerous position, because their northern army being, as yet, without a base or organization, is not in a position to take the offensive to assist them. If, on the other hand, the Turkish army of the south declines battle at Aleppo and retires to defend the Taurus passage, after abandoning half their Empire to the Allies, the latter will, if they have not previously anticipated it, have a difficult problem to solve as to how they are going to get their large forces in the south over the Taurus range to assist the Grand Duke in the final struggle. The forcing of the Taurus passage will mean fighting on a narrow front and will take time.

#### THE ALLIED GRAND STAFF NOW COMMANDS

So far this campaign had been conducted as one of India's little wars, which come as regularly as intermittent fever.

When Turkey entered the war she reckoned that Russia was so busy on the German and Austrian frontiers as to be unable to meet an attack in her rear. Turkey thereupon concentrated her main armies at Erzerum and invaded Caucasia. The Russians

beat them back and entered Armenia, where the inhabitants assisted them. The same cause which led to the retirement from Poland—shortage of ammunition—compelled the Russians also to withdraw from Armenia.

Contemporary with these events, Britain met with a severe reverse on the Gallipoli peninsula, which likewise injured her prestige in the East.

It became a matter of first importance with both Britain and Russia that they should not only reinstate their prestige in the East in striking fashion, but that they should end once and for all time German intrigue and Turkish weakness in the East. These considerations were contributing factors in bringing about a joint war council and an Allied Grand Staff. The latter immediately took hold of the military situation in Asiatic Turkey, and the isolated operations of Britain and Russia in these parts now changed into a great Anglo-Russian campaign stretching from the junction of the Euphrates and Tigris rivers at Kurna to the Black Sea.

The drama unfolding before us promises to be one of the most sensational in the great world war. The end of the Ottoman Empire appears in sight. Its heirs and successors may be the other great Moslem powers—Britain, Russia, France, and Italy. The last two have yet to be heard from on the western shores of Asia Minor.

The future may see the British in possession of Turkey's first capital, Mosul; the French in possession of their second capital, Konia; the Russians in possession of their third and last capital, Constantinople, and the Italians occupying Smyrna. Each of these powers is a Mohammedan empire in itself; and the greatest Moslem country in the world is the British Empire.

The Moslems in India not only approve of the idea of removing the Sheik-ul-Islam, head of the Mohammedan creed, from Constantinople to Delhi or Cairo, under British protection; but the head of their church in India volunteered as a private soldier to fight in France, and is now with the Anglo-Indian army in Mesopotamia. It would seem as if Britain and Russia, at the end of this war, would find themselves in a stronger position than ever in the East.



# THE SWISS AND AUSTRALIAN MILITARY SYSTEMS<sup>1</sup>

BY FREDERIC L. HUIDEKOPER

JUST at the present time when the urgency of considering the best method of obtaining a sufficient force of well-trained soldiers for the United States is being universally discussed, it is pertinent to examine briefly into the two systems of military service which could most readily be adapted to this country. These are the systems employed in Switzerland and Australia. In the former country every male, not physically unfit, between the ages of twenty and fifty is liable to military service. In the case of the officers, however, this liability extends until fifty-five.

Switzerland, like Australia, realizes the value of youthful training, with the result that courses of gymnastics and calisthenics are given in the public schools for boys from the ages of ten to sixteen. At the latter age, the Swiss boy is required by law to continue his gymnastics and to start musketry. Little stimulation is needed in this respect, since rifle shooting has become a national sport in Switzerland, and almost every boy is a member of a rifle club, all of which clubs are under government auspices.

At the age of twenty the boy becomes enrolled in the first line army called the "*élite*," in which he remains until his thirty-second year, inclusive. At thirty-three he passes into the second line, or "*Landwehr*," remaining until the end of his forty-fourth year. The third line consists of all other able-bodied males between the ages of seventeen and fifty.

Upon reporting for duty the Swiss recruit is provided with a uniform, equipment, and rifle, all of which remain in his custody and must be cared for by him until the termination of his military service. The recruits are given military instruction in recruit schools, followed by periods of training amounting to sixty-five days for the infantry, engineers, and foot artillery; seventy-five days for the field artillery; and ninety days for the cavalry. The subsequent training, known as "repetition courses," varies from seven to fourteen days each year. All soldiers under

the rank of sergeant are excused from schooling after having attended seven "repetition courses"—or eight in the case of cavalry. Sergeants and higher non-commissioned officers are, however, required to serve ten "repetition courses." In the case of the "*Landwehr*" a "repetition course" for all the different arms is given for eleven days, but only on every fourth year. All training takes place in the field and on the target range.

The predominant features of the Swiss system are the commencement of work in the public schools, and the universality of the service exacted, from all males physically capable of bearing arms. Another notable feature of the Swiss system is the requirement that every man exempted for any reason from military service shall pay a special tax for national defense, the amount being proportioned to his income or wealth.

Going more in detail into the Swiss system, it will be found that the character of the people plays a great part in this scheme. All are intensely interested in rifle shooting, and practically every town and village has its rifle club, the prizes being obtained by public subscription. Aside from inter-town shooting, there are rifle matches between the cantons and also a national match. The men as a whole are greatly interested in the military service, and shirking is almost unknown. As a matter of fact, it is considered almost a disgrace if a healthy young man is rejected by the military authorities. The people, being given to an active out-of-door life, are thus hardened to the strain of military work. As has been seen, the regular military training does not commence until the twentieth year, although in the various towns and cities there are "Cadet Corps" for boys of fourteen years of age and upwards, the membership being voluntary. The equipment is furnished principally by the municipality, and one or two afternoons each week drills are held and elementary duties taught, supplemented subsequently by shooting.

At the age of nineteen every young Swiss without exception must present himself for

<sup>1</sup> The writer acknowledges indebtedness to Col. E. E. Hatch, U. S. A., for material embodied in this article.

examination. The physical examination is promptly condemned and an order given decidedly severe, while the mental examination is simple but thorough.

Those who successfully pass the examination and are accepted for military service receive assignments depending largely upon their previous occupation. For example, commercial men, clerks, etc., are allotted to the infantry; mountaineers to the mountain batteries; mechanics to the artillery and engineers; and farmers' sons to the cavalry and artillery.

During the year after the examination the men enter the "Rekruten Schule" (Recruit School) and begin their military work, being first assigned to companies and battalions.

Smartness and mathematical precision in marching are virtually neglected, and ceremonies are few and far between; but strong emphasis is laid on practical field work, and long marches are made with the full equipment. How effective is the last may be judged by the fact that the Swiss field service regulations define an average march as 15 to 19 miles; an ordinary march as 19 to 25; and a long day's march as 37 to 44 miles.

The Swiss soldier is incorporated into the *Auszug*, or first line, from the time he begins his service at the age of twenty until he is thirty-two. During this period he is required to report seven times for field service of eleven days, except in the case of the artillery, when the period is fourteen days. From the ages of thirty-three to forty the soldier remains in the *Landwehr*, or militia, during which he has only one period of service amounting to eleven days. At forty-one he passes into the *Landsturm*, remaining until he is forty-eight, and during that time performs only one period of training of three days or less.

During the years when a man does not perform active service he is required to report for inspection on a fixed day, of which he is notified in advance, and must appear in field equipment. Any unserviceable article

is promptly condemned and an order given for its replacement.

It will thus be seen that under the Swiss system a man is given just sufficient military training to keep him in prime condition for active campaigning, and that he always has his entire equipment ready, knows where to report, and in what organization he is to serve. Furthermore, each man is obliged to belong to a rifle club and shoot at least 40 rounds *per annum* at distances varying from 300 to 500 metres.

Additional training is given to corporals and to those of the higher grades. In the case of the corporal this training comprises 20 days for the infantry and 35 for the other arms. This done, they return to the Recruit Schools for a second term in order to help to train the new batch of recruits. In the case of a deficiency in the requisite number of corporals, a man may be ordered to attend the school for that grade. In the event of a man's applying for a commission he is required to attend a special school of 60 days for the quartermaster corps; 80 days for the infantry, and 105 days for the artillery and engineers.

The organization of the Swiss army is practically like that of the American army; the battalions are virtually independent and their importance is similar to that of our regiments. The highest commission is that of colonel, except when war is imminent, in which case a general is commissioned to the supreme command. Switzerland maintains six divisions comprising three army corps. It also has a fully constituted general staff and keeps the organization, equipment, etc., of its force at the highest standard. On a peace footing the total military expenditure is only about \$13,000,000. It will thus be seen that Switzerland has universal service in the broadest sense of the term, as every man is practically a trained soldier; there is no professional army, and the burden on the country is almost nil.

## THE AUSTRALIAN SYSTEM

Two countries more dissimilar than Switzerland and Australia it would be difficult to find. The former has an area of about 16,000 square miles and a population of approximately 4,000,000, and has no sea-coast. The area of Australia is about 3,000,000 square miles, its population is about 5,000,000, and its seacoast is upward of 12,000 miles. The former is surrounded by four powerful nations; the latter is unique

in its isolation. Both of these countries are among the most democratic in the world and have developed in their political affairs much that is strikingly analogous.

In 1903 Australia enacted a Defense Act, but the inefficiency of the system was such that in 1909 a second measure became a law, stipulating that all male British subjects who had resided in the country for six months were liable for military service in time of



war and would be subject to compulsory training in time of peace. This measure is notable for the fact that it was the first law enacted in time of peace in an English-speaking country which established the principle of universal liability to service in a defensive force. It was subsequently amended in 1910, 1911, and 1912. In 1910, Field-Marshal Lord Kitchener came to Australia upon invitation of the Government and made a careful study of the system. His recommendations were put into effect in January, 1911, and it is this system, as modified, with which we are now concerned.

The military force of the Australian Commonwealth consists of (a) permanent forces, which include the administrative and instruction staff, the royal Australian field artillery and garrison artillery regiments and certain small detachments of engineer, medical, service, and veterinary corps; and (b) the citizen forces of all arms, embracing every man, save those specially exempted, between the ages of 14 and 26.

The Australian system is distinctive for the early age at which the training of the soldiers is begun. At twelve years of age this training commences in the "Junior Cadets" in the public and private schools. The course of instruction consists of calisthenics, swimming, marching, and first aid to the injured. This instruction is given almost entirely in the schools, under teachers superintended by the military authorities, all teachers qualifying for instructors being themselves excused from compulsory service. The prescribed training of Junior Cadets amounts to about 120 hours per year—including 15 minutes of physical drill daily. A standard is set for proficiency in elementary marching, and during the two years the effort is made to attain efficiency in at least two of the following, *viz.*: miniature rifle shooting, running exercises in organized games, swimming, and first aid. The particular object of this training is to better the physique of the boys and to teach them patriotism. At the age of fourteen the Australian boy is enrolled as a "Senior Cadet," serving in this organization until he attains his eighteenth year, when he passes into the "Citizen Forces," provided he is not rejected at a physical examination.

It is interesting to note that the position of the Australian Government is analogous to that of the United States inasmuch as the Commonwealth has no control over the school system, which is wholly under the States, but it exercises complete control over the military training.

Save for those specially or temporarily exempted, all adult Australian males from 18 to 26 years constitute the Citizen Forces numbering 112,000 men. Senior Cadets, unlike Junior Cadets, are provided with uniforms which must always be worn on duty, as well as with a record book in which is entered the full history of his military career. His arm is a light edition of the Martini-Henry rifle, and his instruction consists of marching, discipline, management of arms, rifle shooting, physical drill, guard and sentry duty, and first aid. The minimum length of training, which is fixed by statute and is compulsory, is 56 hours *per annum*, but may be increased by voluntary exercises. The Senior Cadet is examined at the end of each year, and at the termination of his service he is classified as "Effective" or "Non-effective."

At the age of eighteen the Senior Cadet passes into the Citizen Forces and serves until he is twenty-six, but he must first be subjected to a severe physical examination at which fully 35 per cent. of the applicants are rejected. During the first seven years a training period of the equivalent of 16 whole days is given, at least eight of which must be spent in camp. The artillery and engineers are schooled for 25 days, 17 of which are in camp. In the eighth year the attendance is required only at muster periods or registration. All promotion is made from the ranks by competition based upon merit. The only reserve is composed of the rifle clubs consisting of old soldiers, men who are physically incapable, and those who have been honorably discharged.

All evasion of service is punishable by fines, and an employer who prevents a subordinate from taking his requisite training is subjected to a fine of \$500. Officers destined to be assigned to the administrative and instruction staff or to the command of areas are trained in the Royal Military College at Duntroon, the course being four years and is followed by service in Great Britain or India.

Inasmuch as the present military system was not put into operation until 1911, it will be 1919 before the first men who entered the Citizen Forces will have completed their service and 1923 in the case of those who entered the Senior Cadets. When the system is in full operation, it is estimated that the total numbers of men under training will amount to 150,000 cadets and 120,000 citizen soldiers. The annual cost of the scheme, it is figured, will somewhat exceed \$15,000,000.

# "AMERICAN MONEY AND JAPANESE BRAINS IN CHINA"

BY HOLLINGTON K. TONG

[We have from time to time gladly accorded space to able and honorable Japanese writers who have set forth the aims and methods of Japan in her policy towards China, and her viewpoint regarding the commercial and political problems of the Far East. When, therefore, a representative of China has his view to present he is entitled to his opportunity, especially when he is so competent to speak as is Mr. Hollington Tong, managing editor of the *Peking News*. It is permissible to say that Mr. Tong is close in the councils of Yuan Shih-kai, head of the Chinese Empire, and a friend of Dr. Wellington Koo, the accomplished Chinese Minister at Washington. Mr. Tong is a member of a company of Chinese journalists who conduct a native newspaper at Peking, as well as one in English. Like Dr. Wellington Koo, he spent several years in Columbia University. He is now visiting in this country.—THE EDITOR.]

"TELL the Americans our country is ready for extensive development. The more money and energy they can put in, together with our own, the better. But," said a prominent Chinese banker, as my train was about to leave Peking two months ago, "we don't want the Japanese to meddle in our trade relations." Above the speeding wish for a "fair wind" from my friends and the lamentation of the younger and older members of my family, I caught, as the train rolled away, the shrill voice of the gesticulating apoplectic old banker, "Warn the Americans against Baron Shibusawa."

Upon my arrival in the United States and after a fortnight spent touring over the country, I have found Americans everywhere more interested in Zeppelin raids on London and Paris, and in the sinking of merchant ships, than in the fundamental American problems of industry and commerce. In official circles at Washington, war forms the only interesting topic of discussion. Two months ago, however, I heard in Peking's official and financial circles nothing but the restoration of monarchy, Japanese aggression, American friendship for China, and China's good market.

This sharp contrast between the social and political atmospheres of the United States and China has somewhat bewildered me, but I realize already that the European War is important.

Little wonder, then, that no attention has been paid to what Baron Shibusawa, official spokesman of Japan, had to say when he was here on a special mission a month ago. The proposal he made was that China's natural resources should be developed with American

money and Japanese brains, or something of that sort. True, the Americans do not like to bother about anything except the war. But such an important proposition, coming as it did from one of the rapidly growing powers, must be analyzed sooner or later. National destinies rest upon economic factors—as does the outcome of the European war. Let us see what there is in the good Baron's proposal.

Two years ago, a similar Japanese proposal was made to England by Count Okuma; but it was quickly and flatly turned down. Count Okuma's suggestion was at that time regarded by the British people as not too flattering to their self-sufficiency.

## NO "GO-BETWEEN" NEEDED

Holding up Carnegie, Rockefeller, Morgan, and Schwab as able representatives, and respecting their China agents like Willard Straight, Robert Dollar, Atwood Robinson, Mr. Green (general manager of the International Banking Corporation in China), and Charles H. Blake (general manager of the Standard Oil Company at Shanghai), the Chinese people have always considered the Americans as being capable managers, skilful engineers, experienced manufacturers, and sound business men.

The Chinese Minister at Washington, Dr. Wellington Koo, voiced their sentiments in a recent speech before the fourth annual conference of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States on Chinese-American trade relations. He declared that "the business Chinese understand the Americans, and the business Americans understand the Chinese." But Baron Shibu-

sawa seems to hold an opposite view, assuming that Americans do not know the situation in China.

Count Okuma based his proposal to England on the axiom that the Japanese had the knowledge of China and the British had the capital by which that knowledge might be made effective. In reply to this suggestion, British manufacturers and merchants asserted that they knew as much about the situation in China as their Japanese allies could teach them, and that it might be assumed that the Chinese themselves had some slight knowledge of their own country. If such were the case, why not Anglo-Chinese economic co-operation? A similar question can apply to American interests in China.

#### JAPAN'S MONOPOLIZING AMBITIONS

But behind the clever, though seemingly innocent scheme of Baron Shibusawa there is a dark and sinister design to close the door in the Orient. With the financial assistance of the British Government, Japan has been able to close the Manchurian market, and has even been trying to oust British interests from the Yangtse Valley, which is still considered a British sphere of influence. When Japan succeeds in securing American money, the door of commerce in the Orient will be completely shut.

The rise of modern Japan, as pointed out by an English authority, has been based very largely on loans from London; and yet she has been using these very loans to extend her commercial activities in China in keen competition with British merchants by means of government subsidies and protection.

In Manchuria, the Japanese Government grants rebates for Japanese goods on the railway whose construction was made possible through credit established in London. Favored by government subsidies, special railway rates, preferential customs treatment, and exemption from internal taxation, Japanese merchants have practically ousted the commodities of all other nations from the market in Manchuria, which is now credited with 17 per cent. of the total foreign trade of China. America fares the worst in this commercial struggle.

In the Yangtse Valley, likewise, the Japanese Government has been giving every support to its subjects in competition with all foreign merchants, especially British and American. The Nissen Kisen Kaisha—whose ships ply between Hankow and Shanghai, two of the biggest commercial ports in China—has been receiving from the

Japanese Government an annual subsidy of \$1,000,000, which has enabled it to charge the lowest freight and passage fares. As a result it has almost monopolized the river trade between Hankow and Ichang and between Hankow and Changsha, which once belonged to British merchants. Finally, two British shipping companies and one Chinese company were driven to a combination. But even with such coöperation they have had little success in the face of the heavy subsidy granted to the Kaisha.

#### SHUTTING DOORS IN YOUR OWN FACE

How Americans will treat the proposal of Baron Shibusawa, which would produce practically the same bad effect upon themselves as upon the British merchants, is an interesting question. Many intelligent Chinese now ask themselves: Will Americans consider practicable the Japanese proposal aiming at closing the door of "equal opportunity in China," which policy they formulated sixteen years ago and which they have since reasserted at intervals? Japan has closed the door in Manchuria with British money. Will she be able to bolt the door in China, against the whole world, with American money?

An immense amount of money will be required before the door can be safely closed and locked. Since Japan is poor and her people are heavily taxed, she must find new sources of revenue elsewhere. Realizing that money obtained by Japan would be used to compete with British trade in China, Great Britain refuses to extend further assistance to the Mikado's empire. The recent exposure of Japan's duplicity and bad faith in misrepresenting the scope of the notorious demands presented to the Peking government a year ago last January, and the final ultimatum compelling China's acquiescence in a partial closing of the door of equal opportunity, aroused indignation in Europe and America. This having not yet abated, public opinion in these two continents will likely turn a deaf ear to entreaties for financial assistance with which to accomplish her Kaiser-like ambition.

Such being the case, Japan must, before the end of the war, maneuver for an alliance with Russia, through which she thinks she will gain access to the French money market, and at the same time she endeavors to get money from the United States through the sugar-coated proposition of Baron Shibusawa, the Japanese Morgan.

Should Japan succeed in her plan, she

would undoubtedly use American money, as she used British money, to subsidize her merchants even to a larger extent, extend her sphere of influence still further, and repeat elsewhere in China the same methods used in Manchuria to drive out foreign traders. At first, she will secure the lion's share of China's trade, and, finally, will force other nations to give up the market.

#### MILITARY EXPANSION OF JAPAN

With the enormous profits which would accrue from American capital invested in China through her, Japan would be able to build more battleships, train more soldiers, erect a greater number of munition plants, and construct more aeroplanes. Should any nation, aware of what Japan is aiming at, protest against the questionable business methods of her merchants, Japan would instantly accept the opportunity and start a world-wide war with a view to finding her place in the sun. She would be possessed of a powerful army and a still more powerful navy, besides millions of Chinese coerced into her service.

In this connection it may be pertinent to mention that in China it is believed that Japan fully intends to make the California land question an issue with the United States when she is sufficiently prepared. Her statesmen—including Count Okuma, her aged Prime Minister, and Baron Shibusawa—have dropped hints to that effect. If this is her intention, there can be nothing better for Japan than to see to it that American money is tied up in China and that meanwhile she secures all profits therefrom. Should Japan choose to bring up the California land question again, she can afford to take a much stronger position than ever. American investors would be compelled to use their influence to secure the kind of legislation Japan wants, for they would lose all their money invested in China in case of war between Japan and America.

#### CHINA HAS HER OWN VIEWS

Baron Shibusawa's scheme is impractical even from the purely business point of view. The Chinese people must be considered. In his zeal to put his proposition before the American people, Baron Shibusawa had only the United States and his own country in mind. If his scheme should be made a success, China's consent must be obtained; but the Chinese people would never make themselves a party to a deal which would deprive them of their sovereignty in the end and

place them under Japanese overlordship. They would, however, welcome American capital, and would be willing to develop their natural resources with American energy combined with Chinese energy. Suspicious of Japanese integrity and honesty, they have complete confidence in the Americans, knowing that while Japanese entertain territorial ambition, Americans trade for the sake of legitimate profits.

"For it must be remembered," said the Chinese Minister, in a speech on Chinese-American relations, striking the keynote of the Chinese attitude towards the Baron's suggestion, "that you have the necessary money just as we have the necessary resources. Neither of us is a mere broker, who has neither money nor goods, but is solely interested in making a commission at the expense of both the buyer and the seller."

The motives of American and Japanese business men are different. Americans, as has been mentioned, trade for the sake of legitimate profits, while Japanese merchants use trade to further their political interests, such as the acquisition of land and concessions, the ousting out of other nationals from the Chinese market, and the creation of disturbances among discontented elements.

#### HOW JAPAN PROMOTES HER COMMERCE

I do not suppose that the United States Government would send a battleship to accord protection to seven of her citizens engaged as experts or engineers in an iron mine in China. But the Japanese Government is doing it. The Tayeh Iron Mines, a Chinese concern, some time ago concluded a loan with a Japanese firm, the principal and interest to be paid in ore. The Japanese investors have sent an engineer and six experts to watch their interests. There is a Japanese battleship stationed there, under the pretense of according protection—although the Chinese believe that it is really engaged in smuggling into port arms and ammunition for the use of trouble-makers.

Japan has also secured a small concession at Chingchow, in Hupeh province, in the heart of southern China, where there are five Japanese. A Japanese consulate looks after their interests, a special Japanese postmaster handles their mail, and a Japanese inspector protects them. This is the kind of commerce that Japan is accustomed to carry on in China, and the Japanese would, in the opinion of most Chinese, like to do the same thing in California or in Mexico.

The Baron's proposition has been tried in



China and found beneficial only to the Japanese. The Chinese have invested much money through Japanese hands in the promotion of companies and the development of natural resources, but they have lost all their capital and have eventually been compelled to give up their shares in joint enterprises.

#### A MANCHURIAN INSTANCE

Numerous illustrations can be cited to substantiate this statement, but suffice it to give one. Yonder in Manchuria there were prosperous forests, the supply of lumber from which was almost inexhaustible. The Japanese saw an opportunity for making money. As they were poor, they approached a number of Chinese for capital, in the manner of Baron Shibusawa. They obtained the necessary funds and a joint company, called the Yalu Timber Company, was immediately established. When the company was organized, a capable Chinese represented the interests of the Chinese merchants, and he proved too shrewd for the Japanese. With much manipulation and corruption and the assistance of their Government, they got rid of him and secured in his place the appoint-

ment of a man who knew nothing whatsoever of the lumber trade. Then peculiarly Japanese business tactics came into play. At the end of the first year, the Yalu Timber Company paid 6 per cent. in profits to the shareholders. The second year a dividend of 1 per cent. was declared, and the third year there was no dividend. In the fourth year, the company was losing money. No one can believe that the company does not continuously make profits. With a capital of three million dollars it monopolizes the whole lumber trade in Manchuria. All merchants who buy timber from the company are making profits, and it is incredible that the company itself is unable to pay dividends. Inside information tells us that the Japanese are using this method to force the Chinese shareholders to give up their interests in the company, thereby acquiring the whole concession themselves.

These facts may serve as a timely warning to Americans who may contemplate dealings with the Japanese, and may shed some needed light upon the proposition of the Japanese Government made to the American people through Baron Shibusawa.

## JAPAN'S CHALLENGE TO ENGLAND

BY BRONSON BATCHELOR

[Mr. Bronson Batchelor, whose analysis of the Far Eastern situation leads him to the opinion that Japan and England are the inevitable future rivals for political and trade domination in Asia and the Pacific, writes an article which will be read with interest in connection with Mr. Hollington Tong's expressions in the pages immediately preceding. We offer both articles as contributions to a discussion of great importance. It is needless to add that our contributors express their own views, which may or may not happen to coincide with our own.—THE EDITOR.]

**B** RITISH diplomacy has been charged with two great blunders in the present war: the failure to handle the Balkan crisis and pacify Bulgaria, and the failure to prevent the alliance of Turkey with the Central Powers. It is responsible for a third, equally great, but hidden for the moment in the greater urgency of war. It has failed to prevent the entrance of Japan into China.

Through this error England has opened the way for her own ally to become her greatest commercial and political rival in the Orient. She has invited a repetition there, in a decade or two, of the consequences that have followed similar German expansion and competition in the West.

England was committed to her share in

the present conflict by her failure to detect and frustrate German naval ambitions as far back as 1861. Because Britain held back, Bismarck was able to attack Denmark and wrest from her, beside Schleswig, the harbor of Kiel. Even then German statesmen dreamed of the great canal which was to be the bulwark of future fleets. The cession of Heligoland, thirty years later, only confirmed the original mistake.

The next war—difficult as it now is to conceive of further bloodshed—is likely to have its root at Kiau-chau, so easily taken from the Germans by Japan. For on the cornerstone of this ancient province, the cradle of the Chinese race and the home of Confucius, a new Empire is scheduled to

rise—the greater Nippon that is the dream of every Japanese.

With the elimination of Germany, the problem of the Far East has been profoundly altered. England, France, and Russia, who had once been eager for the partition of China, a division prevented largely by their own mutual jealousies, are to-day conscious of a new menace and a new "problem" after the war. A youthful power determined at any cost to dominate the East commercially confronts them, eager for the day when they can be ousted politically from the East as well.

#### WHY JAPAN ENTERED THE WAR

It was not for mere treaty obligations, therefore, as many Englishmen fatuously imagined, that the Japanese Government entered the war. "Anyone who fancies that Japan made war on Germany on account of the Anglo-Japanese alliance must be credited with a great degree of simplicity," said S. Yokoyama, a member of the Japanese Diet. Either Japanese diplomacy succeeded in lulling the suspicions of the British Foreign Office or—as is more probable—England found herself unable to oppose Japan's course. Like many other obscure steps of Entente diplomacy, we shall have to wait for history to furnish the answer.

Sufficient it is that Japan saw in the war an opportunity to drop the disguise of respectful compliance with the powers, and to demand, with Germany's boldness, her own "place in the sun." She has gone further and proclaimed a virtual Monroe Doctrine for Asia, where Premier Okuma has given warning that henceforth Japanese interests are to predominate.

How far the Japanese Government was prepared to go, even against its own allies, to secure the position put within its grasp, was only disclosed in the demands made upon China after the surrender of Kiau-chau. Alarmed by the virtual protectorate sought by Japan under the guise of military and financial "advisers," the Ministers of England and Russia were forced to warn her that "it would be difficult to negotiate diplomatically" if the demands were pressed. Japan not only ignored the protest, but with scant concealment prepared to force their adoption. China yielded, though not in full; and Japan, not daring to go further, announced that the remaining proposals had not been withdrawn but merely "postponed." Their resumption has recently been rumored, but denied at Tokio. The transferences of

large bodies of troops from Japan and Port Arthur to the Shantung Peninsula, however, portend preparations for some important move.

The stakes for which Count Okuma played were high. He realized that if the opportunity for which Japan had burdened herself with armament to the point of breaking was not to be lost, he must take the gambler's risk. Japan could not wait the slow fruition of a policy, as Germany for twenty-five years has waited for the Turks. Nor was there time to adopt the concealed approaches through which the British have established their ascendancy over native peoples. Japan's necessity compelled her to enter the European peace conference with a *fait accompli*, challenging the powers, if they dared to dislodge her.

#### COMMERCIAL RIVALRY WITH BRITAIN

Particularly was it necessary to confront England, whose empire had been built on a similar course pursued through the eighteenth century, with an accomplished fact. England had been before the war, and must be again, the greatest obstacle to Japan's dream of dominating China. At Shanghai and in the colony of Hongkong, the British hold the choicest trading locations, just as in the Yangtze valley they possess the richest mineral district not only in China but in the world; they own most of the railways, the principal banks, and exercise a large control over Chinese customs and salt taxes; their investments in the country alone reach the total of \$2,000,000,000.

Only at the expense of British interests can Japanese expansion take place, as it has in the past in Manchuria and Korea. British merchants have long felt the competition and have bombarded the Foreign Office with petitions for redress. But for one of the few times in British history, Downing Street was obliged by treaty obligations to turn a deaf ear to the commercial classes.

No sooner was Tsing-tau taken than it was closed to all but Japanese ships. Only after a protest were British vessels admitted to the port. Next the withdrawal of practically the whole of European shipping for war service gave Japan another chance. An Imperial edict was issued that preference for Japanese cargoes must be shown on Japanese vessels. It was thus sought to repeat on the sea the policy pursued on the Manchurian railways, where discriminatory rates have practically driven all but Japanese goods from the field. In ally lines the government

sought to stimulate the exploitation of the new markets by liberal bonuses and assistance.

From China, Japan demanded the right to veto all foreign loans and concessions unless Japanese interests were first consulted. To England she has also proposed an economic alliance, whose advantages for the British are at the most rather dubious.

Baron Shibusawa, who has served as an unofficial emissary of Premier Okuma in the United States and China, at Shanghai said in an interview:

For the development of a country there are necessary three economic factors: resources, capital, and the knowledge and experiences of men. China has many resources to be developed, the British have the capital, and the Japanese the knowledge and experience. There should be an economic coöperation.

"I recognize the importance of the British influence in the Yangtze valley," said the Baron, and then he uttered these warning words: "Each of the Allies *should*, however, *concede something to the other, for if not, a conflict of interests will take place.*" What concessions Japan would make Baron Shibusawa did not say.

In order to gain a free hand in China, therefore, the whole task of Japanese diplomacy must be to neutralize the power of Great Britain. It is a problem that is receiving careful attention at Tokio, and already advances have been made toward its solution.

#### AMERICA NOT FEARED—AND NEED NOT FEAR JAPAN

The only other nation that could check Japan's designs is the United States. But we are no longer feared. By our withdrawal from the six-power loan agreement, by our surrender of the Hankow railway concession, and by our failure to protect China against the Japanese demands, we have lost the influence in Far Eastern affairs built up for America through the work of John Hay, Elihu Root and Philander C. Knox. Japan knows that we would not fight for the "Open Door," already half shut in our faces, since we will not even protect our own citizens and their investments in Mexico.

Nor does America, on the other hand, need to fear Japan. For the next generation the Japanese will be wholly occupied in China. They will be straining every nerve, politically and commercially, to fasten their mastery over that vast defenseless territory before they are blocked by the revival of

Chinese nationalism, now making such great headway. Japan does not dare to turn aside for America. She may cherish the wound inflicted upon her national pride by our immigration and land laws, but she will not fight. China once supine, she may turn—and probably will—to avenge her wrongs against us.

Japanese statesmen are not so vain as to believe that they can challenge British sea power. Although with the passing of the Germans from the Orient, the Anglo-Japanese alliance has largely lost its value to both nations, it is to Japan's interests, so long as it lulls British suspicions, to preserve it. Under its cover she is striving to construct a new Asiatic balance of power, which will allow her independence of action, but tie the hands of Europe.

#### JAPAN'S FUTURE ALLIANCES

With the utmost naïveté Japan is now seeking an alliance with Russia, her foe of a decade ago. Her public men are outdoing themselves to show their friendship for the Czar. Fortresses have been stripped, and guns and officers sent to aid the Russians; factories and arsenals are running overtime—if such a thing be possible in Japan—to replenish Russia's depleted munition supply.

Of course Japan is thus enabled to pay off a part of the crushing national debt, under which she was staggering toward ruin, but to the subtle Oriental mind there is an additional value in such an alliance. Japan seeks to detach Russia from the Asiatic policy of England, and with the offer of an increased share in Manchurian and Inner Mongolian concessions, win Petrograd to her own purpose. What could be more effective to counter Britain, for instance, than a revival of the Russian menace to India?

There is some evidence, too, that Russia has not lent an unwilling ear to these proposals. In Manchuria, instead of the bitterness and inevitable hostility which followed the Russo-Japanese War, the Russians and Japanese are working together in ever-increasing amity and coöperation. One of the Russian Grand Dukes, accompanied by a large suite, in which the Foreign Office is sure to be represented, is now on an official mission to Tokio. Despite the strain of war, perhaps Russia also has an eye to the future. For the rearrangement of Asia, she does not wish to be unprepared.

Japanese statesmen and publicists have even gone so far as to advocate an alliance with Germany after the war. Emperor

William, before England made her compact, was eager for such a treaty. The extreme courtesy with which the Japanese treated the Germans at Kiau-chau was so noticeable as to excite comment. Perhaps the Kaiser might forgive the loss of his Eastern possessions for a new chance of striking at Britain's sea power. At any rate it is a card the Japanese are not neglecting.

And finally Japan has sought, if not to win over the United States, at least to blind us to her course in China. The object of Baron Shibusawa's recent visit was, first, to sound out American opinion as to how far it would go in protecting China, and secondly, if the answer was favorable, to enlist American capital for China's exploitation. British funds, besides being none too plentiful after the war, were not likely to be freely offered to the Japanese. That the Baron succeeded in securing American funds for use in China was the announcement made in Tokio after his return.

#### THE ONE ASSURED RIVALRY

It is, of course, too early to say how successful Japan will be in her projects. Much depends upon the strength of the belligerents as they emerge from the war. If Great Britain comes out with her fleet undiminished, and with no domestic quarrels between labor and capital, already menacing,

to threaten her, she will be free to bring Japan at once to an understanding. Many difficulties in the future could thus be avoided.

Much also depends upon China in her efforts at self-regeneration. If her new nationalist spirit is strong enough she may yet be able to throw off the Japanese menace and regain control of her own destiny. Whether the return to the Monarchy makes for greater security, or whether it is another sign of disintegration, events have not gone far enough to disclose. It would seem to be the policy of the Western powers to strengthen the central government in order to checkmate Japan, yet the Entente nations have joined with her in protesting Yuan's elevation to the throne. Until the return of peace, however, no definite policy is likely to be formulated.

Before his death, Prince Ito, the Bismarck of Japan, made a remarkable prophecy. "The next war," said the Prince, "will take place in Europe. It will be followed by a second conflict, the struggle for the mastery of the Pacific."

Whether the Prince's words were the echo of Japan's own determination to win that mastery we do not know. But it is at least clear that the only possible contenders for the prize are Great Britain and Japan. On the success of Japan's present diplomacy much of the issue depends.

## CIVIL SERVICE TRIAL BOARDS

A NEW SYSTEM IN SUCCESSFUL OPERATION IN NEW YORK CITY

BY HON. MARCUS M. MARKS

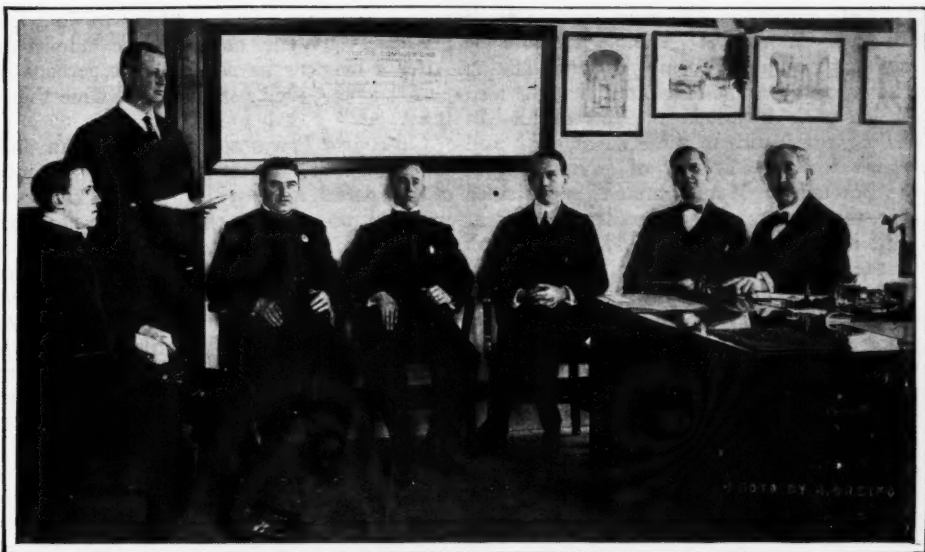
(President of the Borough of Manhattan, New York)

"YOU are dismissed from the service," said the Commissioner of Public Works to the civil service employee who had been brought before him on charges. This was a terrible sentence,—practically a death sentence,—to the man with a wife and large family. According to civil service regulations, the man could not return to any employment either in the Borough of Manhattan, or in any other Borough of the Greater City of New York for a term of two years. When the man entered the service, he did so after passing civil service examinations, which established his fitness for the place. True, he committed an offense. He was intoxicated on two different occa-

sions, or he disobeyed orders, or he showed himself inefficient in the performance of some service. On the other hand, the Commissioner, being human, might have been unduly severe; he might have been prejudiced; he might have misunderstood some of the elements in the case.

I was convinced that the trial of a civil service employee should not have the "star chamber" feature, nor be determined by a single man's judgment. For that reason, I determined to introduce in the Borough of Manhattan the plan of a Trial Board similar to the Boards of Arbitration in which, for many years, I have been deeply interested in the industrial field, and which were





PRESIDENT MARKS (AT DESK) PRESIDING AT A SESSION OF THE JOINT TRIAL BOARD, MANHATTAN BOROUGH

made up jointly of representatives of the employers and employees.

The right of trial by jury is one of the oldest established rights given to the citizens of any country; yet the trial of charges against municipal employees before juries composed jointly of representatives of the administration and of fellow employees had never before been used in government anywhere, so far as I am aware.

The Joint Trial Board operates as follows: Four men hear the charges and the explanation, and advise me what action to take; these four men come in equal numbers from the administration and from the working forces of the Borough office; one is a Commissioner, the other an Assistant Commissioner, or Secretary or Engineer, and the two others are selected by lot from among the fellow workers of the man on trial.

Before the inauguration of this plan, it was urged by some that the Joint Trial Board would be a failure for two principal reasons; first, that the two fellow employees would, in most instances, side with the man on trial, and permit their feelings to sway their better judgment; second, that the discipline of the department would be injured by taking from the Commissioner the power of peremptory dismissal. The first objection I overruled on the basis of my twenty years' active experience in the labor world, in which I had discovered that workers when raised to a position of responsibility are just as fair and conscientious as employers un-

der the same circumstances. My experience was that instead of leaning towards their fellows, there was, on the contrary, more danger of their leaning backward against the interests of their fellow workers.

On the second point, I felt sure that the discipline of justice was more far-reaching in its real effects than the discipline of fear; I felt certain that the two men who had been selected from the ranks, and placed upon the Trial Board, would carry back to their fellows in the service the story of the "square deal"; that they would impress upon the rank and file the fact that in case of good service, the position of every worker was absolutely assured by the new system against the attacks of political or other prejudice.

The events since July, 1914, have fully justified these conclusions. Among 2300 employees under my jurisdiction, 56 had been brought before the Joint Trial Board up to the time of writing—(about a year and a half), and, remarkable as it may seem to those who have not studied the psychology of this system, the verdict of the Board has been unanimous in each one of the 56 trials. The results were as follows. Twenty-four employees were dismissed from the service; eighteen were fined from one to two weeks' pay; seven were fined from one to three days' pay; three were suspended for continued absence from duty pending a report of our physician as to their physical fitness; four were reprimanded.

The circumstances surrounding the trials are deeply impressive. A Bible is before me to which I allude in opening the trial, stating that no oath is to be taken, but that the men are on their honor in the sacred duty of dealing out justice to the accused, with full regard for the efficiency of government in the Borough of Manhattan. It is explained that the man is to be considered innocent until he be proven guilty, and, if the latter be the conclusion, what penalties have been customary. The man under charges is much less disturbed than he would be in the absence of his fellows. He has full opportunity to collect his thoughts and calmly give explanation of his offense. Furthermore, after a trial by the Joint Trial Board, the employee is saved the annoyance, the uncertainty, and the expense which in the past have been the results of appeals to the courts.

He knows, or if he does not know, he soon learns upon consulting an attorney, that all elements of prejudice have been removed by the presence on the Board of his own fellow employees, selected by lot, and that the courts will, as a rule, reinstate a man only if prejudice is evident.

Many of the cases presented for trial have been filled with human interest. One in particular comes to my mind. The employee, a stationary fireman, was charged with repeated disobedience of orders, and with having failed to keep up the steam pressure in the boiler which he was attending. It developed during the trial that the man had for a time been acting rather peculiarly and the Board concluded that the accused should have medical examination and treatment rather than punishment. Accordingly he was given leave of absence, without pay, in order that he might recover his health and return to work. Thus the man and his family were saved from disgrace.

Another incident occurred recently that was of interest, as showing the human sympathy of the average man, and his appreciation of real and valuable service. An attendant at one of the public baths was brought up on charges of intoxication. The hearing was over and the Joint Board was discussing the punishment that should be meted out. I have understood since then that the feeling at the time was that this man should be dismissed from the service.

While the Joint Board was considering the case the man began to unwrap a parcel he had in his hands, tied up in brown paper. "May I show this to you?" he asked. I in-

quired whether it had anything to do with his case. "Well, no, sir," he admitted. After a moment he added, "But perhaps it has—anyhow, won't you please let me show it to you?"

Of course I was sorry for the man and so I told him I would look at the contents of the parcel if he wished me to. He unwrapped the rest of the brown paper and held out to me five medals which had been given him for saving lives of drowning persons. I looked at them and at him. Then I laid the medals down on the table before members of the Joint Board, and said in effect: "Gentlemen, before rendering your final decision in this case, perhaps you may wish to take into consideration these proofs of service and of courage."

The Joint Board did take into consideration his saving of lives at the risk of his own, without thought of reward. The man was not dismissed from the city's service.

Viewing all the circumstances of our experience in the last year and a half in connection with the Joint Trial Boards—(1) the unanimity in each judgment of the Board; (2) the equal justice that has been dealt out; (3) the good effect upon those who serve as judges; and (4) the excellent "*esprit de corps*" throughout our department engendered by the clear evidence of a thoroughly square deal for all, we may truly draw the conclusion that the new system is a complete success, and well worthy of establishment in every borough, city, State, and federal department of government.

During the past summer, I described the operations of this Joint Trial Board in two addresses, one in the City of Denver, and the other in the City of Los Angeles. It was a matter of much interest and gratification to me to learn that the police and fire departments of Denver shortly afterwards officially adopted the Joint Trial Board. I was delighted to hear later that the charter commission of Los Angeles unanimously approved its adoption. It must be remembered that civil service employees, who have proved by passing regular examinations that they are fitted for their places, are not in a position to force action for permanent employment nor improved conditions through organized strikes. The nature of their employment in the city service makes this unthinkable. Therefore, all the more do they deserve the fullest consideration in plans assuring security in their employment during good behavior and all proper protection tending towards their general welfare.

# FARMING AND A WORLD CRISIS

## FINANCING AMERICAN AGRICULTURE

BY PAUL V. COLLINS

[The following article is the first of a series of three, dealing with the subject of rural credits in the United States. The second article will explain the method by which it is proposed to supply farm credit through a system of federal land banks. The final article of the series will consider the matter of personal credits, as distinct from land mortgages.—THE EDITOR.]

"WHENEVER this country undertakes to legislate for farmers, or any other special class of citizens, it will be treading upon the verge of danger. My own conviction upon the absence of any need for Rural Credits legislation was confirmed, a few days ago, when I attended a meeting of farmers and heard an old farmer declare that 'farmers resented the idea that they needed any special legislation to help them.'"

So wrote to me a New York editor, and he wrote in all frankness and sincerity. I do not agree with such talk; it falls so far short of comprehending the true agricultural situation in the United States.

Commercial and industrial interests are given the aid of the financial machinery established by the commercial banks and the new Reserve Bank System, where merchants' and manufacturers' general assets and the ledger credits are negotiable for real money, upon their unsupported notes—their promises to pay, backed by no collateral but that of a fountain pen. Why should farmers be barred from equal facilities?

With eight million farmers (of whom five million are tenants, unable to own land in a country which, but a few years ago, boasted that its "Uncle Sam was rich enough to give us all a farm")—and with these eight million farmers unable to get half of their tillable acres into crop, for lack of working capital, and unable to borrow money on long enough time to be practicable and safe, and at a cost reasonable enough to make it profitable—with agriculture thus handicapped, yet producing over ten billion dollars of new wealth a year, while only 40 per cent. of its potential capacity is at work, it shows unfair bias for anyone to say that meeting conditions peculiar to farming and giving agriculture facilities of financing,

equivalent to those established for commercial and manufacturing business, is "treading on the verge of danger."

### FOOD PRODUCTION AS A "PREPAREDNESS" MEASURE

What is the greatest of all measures of national preparedness to meet the exigencies of world conditions,—whether of war or peace—but that of speeding up to the utmost possible efficiency our food production?

The war-mad world is not merely upon the "verge of danger" of starvation; it is starving. There are no reserve granaries in Great Britain, France, Italy, Germany, Austria—nor anywhere in the world. Russia's surplus will be used by Russia; it is inaccessible to the rest of the world.

Whether America remains neutral, or enters the conflict, it must produce more food than ever, or the world will starve.

Whether Europe continues to devastate its own fields, or lies prostrate and exhausted in ultimate peace, it must turn, hungry, to America for food.

The London *Times* explained recently why the Canadian Government had commandeered the entire wheat crop of Canada. It was because Britain and her Allies, and Germany and her Allies, were engaged in a frenzied struggle to seize the remaining stores of grain in Roumania, and the beginning of the end of the world's supply of food was in sight.

### RURAL CREDITS AS A NATIONAL PROBLEM

The movement to finance agriculture is not primarily a war measure. It began long before the world-horror was believed possible. Perhaps we may say it originated, to a certain extent, amongst impractical dreamers and class agitators, but if so it has, by

evolution, completely eliminated their vagaries and has been taken up by conservative economists.

The history and present status of the measure in Congress is as follows:

In 1912, all three political platforms—Democratic, Progressive, and Republican—pledged national legislation upon Rural Credits. All political parties conceded the need of such action; the movement, therefore, is non-partisan.

#### EUROPE'S EXPERIENCE

The general idea of collective land-mortgage credits with debenture bonds originated in Silesia, in 1769, by order of Frederick the Great. The order put a perpetual lien on all rural lands of the nobility in that province, as a security for all debentures to be issued by the *landschaft*. These debentures were then issued to landowners in exchange for mortgages on their individual lands and the borrowers sold the debentures, which became a circulating medium of the country. Back of the debentures were the individual mortgages and also the blanket lien on all land in the province, whether belonging to borrowers or not.

Coöperative credit without land security also originated in Germany. It started in 1850 through the efforts of Judge Schulze-Delitzsch, in Germany, and was introduced in Austria in 1858 by Ziller, an economist, in other countries at later periods, and in Canada by Desjardins in 1900, and in the United States by the same man (a journalist) in 1908. Later it was adopted in Japan, upon the initiative of the government, and likewise in British India and in Egypt.

#### THE PROPOSITION IN CONGRESS

In 1913 Congress appointed a "United States Commission," headed by Senator Duncan U. Fletcher and made up of members of Congress, to go to Europe and investigate rural conditions with special reference to coöperative finance. At the same time Congress recognized and gave authority to a so-called American Commission of ninety private citizens, representing twenty-nine States and Canada. This American Commission had grown out of a speech by Mr. David Lubin made at the Southern Commercial Congress the previous year. Its members paid their own expenses but were given official recognition with the United States Commission, of Congress.

The trip resulted in three reports—one by the United States Commission, and a major-

ity and minority report by the American Commission.

The United States Commission and the majority of the American Commission agreed on a plan which became known as the Fletcher-Moss bill. But the minority report of the American Commission laid the foundation of what became the Hollis bill, which is the measure now pending, all others having been rejected in committee.

This bill was introduced on January 4, 1916, in the Senate by Senator Hollis and in the House by Representative Moss, of Indiana, chairman of the sub-committee on Personal Credits.

Both branches then referred the bill to their respective Committees on Banking and Currency, and these committees, after months of consideration and amendment, have reported separate bills for passage, both bills framed upon the Hollis bill.

There is considerable divergence in the details of the two bills, but not in their fundamentals, so that there is no question of their passage, not only in the two branches of Congress, but also in their harmonization in conference and final enactment into law at this session.

It is promised by the House Committee that the House will act promptly in passing its bill, but the program in the Senate is to take no action until after Preparedness has been cared for.

#### URGENT NEED OF AGRICULTURAL FINANCING

All the balance of trade of our foreign commerce does not equal the wealth-production of our farms in the aggregate; yet, our farmers are forced to let 60 per cent. of their acres lie idle because of lack of liquid capital to operate them. If that 60 per cent. were set to raising crops, and the proper proportion of crops fed to stock, the ten billion dollars of total wealth production of the farms of to-day, would be capable of becoming twenty—thirty billion dollars, and that increase would be added to what we could spare to the hungry world in exchange for gold. Our coveted "balance of trade" would be increased, our manufacturers would prosper by this increased wealth.

Further than that: It takes 8,000,000 farmers, plus the "hired help," to crop the 40 per cent. (even as it is now tilled), and, if the other 60 per cent. of the land could be capitalized and set to work, how many more million farm workers would be employed? Indeed, Secretary of Agriculture Houston states that only twelve per cent. of



the land has ever been tilled to its fullest capacity. How it would shout a real answer to that present vain call, "Back to the Land!" if agricultural efficiency were "speeded up" to its full volume and full capacity!

#### THE RURAL CREDITS BILL

The Rural Credits Bill undertakes to accomplish something in the direction of financing agriculture. It will not solve all the problems; it will not legislate wealth into poor farmers, nor prudence into foolish ones. But it will perform great things in the right direction, if it be not killed by its jealous opponents or its "fool friends."

The present measure applies only to land-mortgage financing. It will not benefit the tenant farmer, nor the man who does not want to mortgage his land, but who needs a few hundred dollars for only six or nine months, to put in his crops or to buy live stock.

More than two-thirds of the farmers—tenants and others who seek not to mortgage land for five years or longer—will not benefit by the first measure; and that means that only about one-third of the farmers could take advantage of it, if they desired. But it is in itself such a tremendously long step in advance that we may watch and pray for its success.

Then will follow another step, planned to help the greater number—the small farmer who needs a few dollars for a few months—through what is termed "personal credit."

#### LAND MORTGAGES

In the meanwhile, let us see just what is to be done for land mortgages, and why anything is needed in that line.

In many localities (especially in the old-settled East) farmers already borrow on first mortgages, at 5 or 5½ per cent. interest, and so they are not to be greatly relieved in interest rate; though, as these mortgages run, usually for only five years, they are in danger of foreclosure and loss of their farms, if crop failure or sickness overtake them.

But, according to the testimony of the expert on farm organization, Dr. C. W. Thompson, of the Department of Agriculture, the rate on farm mortgages in the

Northwest and South, averages 10 per cent., and, in many cases, ranges up to 15, 18, and even 25 per cent. The proposed Rural Credits System, if put into force, will bring sunshine upon many such mortgage-clouded farms, for it will provide all the funds needed, upon first mortgages, up to half the value of any farm, at, not to exceed 6 per cent., and at an average of 5 per cent. interest.

Furthermore: The mortgage will run, if desired, thirty-six years; and, during that time, the farmer will pay one per cent. a year on the principal, and, presto! the total of 6 per cent. in thirty-six years pays off the principal, as well as the interest, and the farm works its own way out from under the mortgage. That is what is known as "amortization"—a big word, performing big work. It is not obligatory that the paying of the loan be so prolonged, for, after five years, it can be paid off as fast as the farmer pleases.

No loan is to be for less than five years, nor more than thirty-six. Whatever number of years are determined upon by the borrower, when he makes the loan, determines how much he must amortize each year; for a fixed portion of the principal must be paid every year, so as to clear off the entire principal by the end of the term. Strange as it may seem, it is necessary, only, to pay one per cent. (of the original amount) each year, together with the interest on the original amount, to clear off the entire debt in thirty-six years.

#### THE METHOD PROPOSED

Now what is the plan of financing agriculture through this new Rural Credits bill? Is the Government going to lend its public money, or, is it planning to use its credit for the relief of agriculture? No.

A much safer and saner plan is now proposed which will not involve public money, nor credit, yet will give all the needed funds.

The framework of the plan is very similar to that of the Federal Reserve Banks, established for correlating the national banks. But the new Federal Land Banks will be entirely separate from the commercial bank system. The details will be explained in a subsequent article.



# MISTAKEN METHODS IN SCIENCE TEACHING

BY L. F. BARKER, M.D.

[Dr. Lewellys F. Barker, the distinguished Johns Hopkins pathologist and professor of Medicine, in a recent address before the Johns Hopkins Alumni at New York, expressed noteworthy views on teaching which, at our request, he has embodied in the letter printed herewith.—THE EDITOR]

IT seems to me that we are trying to teach too much detail to the students in our medical schools, and are, to a certain extent, failing to realize the goal we have in view. The most we can hope to do, either in a college course or in a professional course in which natural sciences are taught, is to give to the student in each subject a grasp of its fundamental principles and a training in its more typical practical-technical methods of investigation. Each subject should, in my opinion, be taught for its own sake, and without too strict a regard for its immediate utilitarian value for the sciences that follow it in the curriculum. It does not require a long course to make a student familiar with the general principles of a science or to acquaint him practically with its more important technical methods. A brief course, organized with this definite purpose in view, and given by a master of the subject, will be much more valuable to the student than a longer course that is not well organized.

The natural sciences are advancing with great rapidity and the temptation of teachers is ever to add new parts to their courses of instruction, without discarding older parts and without periodically reorganizing the course, as a whole, to correspond to the new position occupied by the science. The result is that the curriculum becomes so arranged that the student's entire time is filled with required work, leaving very little, if any, time free for optional courses, for meditation, for reading in libraries, or for exercise in the open air.

Would it not be possible, with good-will on the part of the professors, and with a better understanding of what we really want to give our students, to reorganize our curricula so that the obligatory courses for each student shall occupy only a part of his time, suitable optional courses to be offered to those that desire to take them, the dean, however, to insist that a certain amount of daytime shall be left free from any courses (obligatory or optional) in order that the

student may keep at least some part of the daytime free for intercourse with his fellows, for reflection, for reading, and for exercise? The importance of this matter has been borne in upon me by the statistics dealing with the number of students that develop pulmonary tuberculosis during their period of study in the medical schools. I am told that in one class of medical students, of which all the members on entrance to the medical school had been examined physically and were found healthy, no less than 10 per cent. developed tuberculosis before the end of their fourth year of study. There must be something radically wrong with the conditions that permit of such a morbidity from tuberculosis in young people apparently healthy on entrance to a school. Is it not the duty of the faculties of such schools thoroughly to inquire into the causes of the infection and so to rearrange the curriculum and the mode of life of the students that they may remain healthy during their course?

Wholly aside from the physical welfare of the students, I am convinced that their minds will be better trained for their later professional careers if the curriculum be arranged in the manner I have outlined above, rather than completely filled with the mass of obligatory work that now characterizes it, owing to the attempt at large content. For, after all, it is not the mere content of the man's mind on graduation that is significant for his later success. The memorizing of a mass of facts is far less important than a well-rounded education in fundamental principles, a certain training in methods of investigation, and, above all, the acquisition of the scientific habit of mind. A student at graduation can never be a finished product. He is only a beginner in his subject. What we must do for him is to prepare him in such a way that he will know how to continue his studies for himself after graduation, and we must see to it that he will be capable of making growth himself parallel with the progress that his science makes.

# A MODERN SCHOOL

BY ABRAHAM FLEXNER

[Dr. Abraham Flexner stands to-day in the first rank of American authorities in the field of educational science and administration. His inquiries have been wide as well as deep, and he has the courage of his convictions. Six years ago his report on medical education, prepared and published under the direction of the Carnegie Foundation, made a stir the results of which are already transforming the methods of our medical schools. This is only one of Dr. Flexner's notable achievements.]

After graduating from the Johns Hopkins University, in 1886, he began teaching in his home city of Louisville, and continued as a teacher and school administrator for many years. During the past eight years he has carried out or directed investigations for foundations endowed by Mr. Carnegie and Mr. Rockefeller. For four years he has been one of the executive secretaries of the General Education Board. He is also one of the most influential members of the New York City Board of Education, which spends \$40,000,000 a year upon the public school system.

At several of the recent meetings of the General Education Board, the subjects of elementary and secondary education have been discussed. The Board has not only lent its aid to the better establishment and endowment of many institutions for higher education, but it has given much thought to the methods by which rural schools could be made to contribute more to the well-being of country communities, and also to the question of high schools. The president of the Board, Mr. Frederick T. Gates, has taken advanced ground in a paper, published by the Board, entitled "The Country School of To-morrow." Dr. Charles W. Eliot, also a member of the Board, has prepared a monograph on "Changes Needed in American Secondary Education," which has just been issued and to which we are making extended reference elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW. Dr. Flexner's paper, "A Modern School," was presented to the Board several weeks ago and is now appearing in the same series of publications of the Board as the papers of Messrs. Gates and Eliot. It seems to us to have interest of so timely a character that we are glad of the opportunity to present it in full herewith for our readers.

The most important thing in American "preparedness," from the permanent standpoint, must consist in making the education of all our young people a real and vital thing, fitting them for the places they ought to take in the community. In authorizing the publication of its occasional educational papers, the Board does not intend to endorse any particular views or theories. It desires to stimulate discussion, and to facilitate hopeful experiment in the field of educational progress.—  
THE EDITOR.]

AS President Eliot has so clearly pointed out in his paper on "The Changes Needed in American Secondary Education," tradition still too largely determines both the substance and the purpose of current education. A certain amount of readjustment has indeed taken place; in some respects almost frantic efforts are making to force this or that modern subject into the course of study. But traditional methods and purposes are strong enough to maintain most of the traditional curriculum and to confuse the handling of material introduced in response to the pressure of the modern spirit. It is therefore still true that the bulk of the time and energy of our children at school is devoted to formal work developed by schoolmasters without close or constant reference to genuine individual or social need.

The subjects in question deal predominantly with words or abstractions, remote from use and experience; and they continue to be acquired by children because the race has formed the habit of acquiring them, or

more accurately the habit of going through the form of acquiring them, rather than because they serve the real purposes of persons living to-day. Generally speaking, it may be safely affirmed that the subjects commonly taught, the time at which they are taught, the manner in which they are taught, and the amounts taught are determined by tradition, not by a fresh and untrammelled consideration of living and present needs.

I am not forgetful of the fact that the moment a student takes fire in studying any subject, no matter how remote or abstract, it assumes a present reality for him. Thus, sometimes through the personality of the teacher, less often through the congeniality of the subject matter, Latin and algebra may seem as real to particular students as wood-work, Shakespeare, biology, or current events. It still remains true, however, that these cases are highly exceptional; and that most children in the elementary and high schools struggle painfully and ineffectually to bring the subject matter of their studies within a world that is real and genuine for them.

The best of them succeed fitfully; most of them never succeed at all.

It is perhaps worth while stopping long enough to show by figures the extent to which our current teaching fails. Complete statistics which would tell us how many of all the pupils who study Latin and algebra and geometry fail to master them do not exist. But we know that a large percentage of the better students of these subjects try the College Entrance Examinations, and that for these examinations many receive special drill, in addition to the regular teaching.

Now in the examinations held by the College Entrance Board in 1915, 76.6 per cent. of the candidates failed to make even a mark of 60 per cent. in Cicero; 75 per cent. failed to make a mark of 60 per cent. in the first six books of Virgil, every line of which they had presumably read and reread; 69.7 per cent. of those examined in algebra from quadratics on failed to make as much as 60 per cent.; 42.4 per cent. failed to make 60 per cent. in plane geometry.

What would the record be if all who studied these subjects were thus examined by an impartial outside body? Probably some of those who fail do not do themselves justice; but as many—perhaps more—of the few who reach the really low mark of 60 per cent. do so by means of devices that represent stultification rather than intelligence. For nothing is commoner in the teaching of ancient languages and formal mathematics than drilling in arbitrary signs by means of which pupils determine mechanically what they should do, without intelligent insight into what they are doing.

It is, therefore, useless to inquire whether a knowledge of Latin and mathematics is valuable, because pupils do not get it; and it is equally beside the mark to ask whether the effort to obtain this knowledge is a valuable

discipline, since failure is so widespread that the only habits acquired through failing to learn Latin or algebra are habits of slipshod work, of guessing and of mechanical application of formulæ, not themselves understood.

A word should perhaps be said at this point by way of explaining why the Germans appear to succeed where we fail. There are two reasons: in the first place, the German gymnasium makes a ruthless selection. It rejects without compunction large numbers whom we in America endeavor to educate; and on the education of this picked minority it brings to bear such pressure as we can never hope to apply—family pressure, social pressure, official pressure. Under such circumstances, success is possible with small numbers; but the rising tide of opposition to the classical gymnasium and the development of modern schools with equivalent privileges show that even in Germany the traditional education is undermined.

But not only do American children as a class fail to gain either knowledge or power through the traditional curriculum—they spend an inordinately long time in failing. The period spent in school and college before students begin professional studies is longer in the United States than in any other western country. An economy of two or three years is urgently necessary. The Modern School must therefore not only find what students can really learn—it must feel itself required to solve its problem within a given number of years—the precise number being settled in advance on social, economic, and professional grounds. Its problem may perhaps be formulated in these terms: how much education of a given type can a boy or girl get before reaching the age of, let us say, twenty, on the theory that at that age general opportunities automatically end?

## A MODERN CONCEPTION OF EDUCATION

Before I undertake to do this, it is necessary to define education for the purposes of this sketch; and for obvious reasons this definition will be framed from a practical rather than from a philosophical point of view. All little children have certain common needs; but, beginning with adolescence, education is full of alternatives. The education planned for children who must leave school at fourteen necessarily differs in extent and thus to a degree in content from that feasible for those who can remain, say,

two years longer, so as to acquire the rudiments of a vocation. Still different are the possibilities for children who have the good fortune to remain until they are eighteen or twenty, reasonably free during this lengthened period from the necessity of determining procedure by other than educational considerations. I assume that the Modern School of which we are now speaking contemplates liberal and general education in the sense last-mentioned. With regard to children who expect to enjoy such opportu-



nities, what do we moderns mean when we speak of an educated man? How do we know and recognize an educated man in the modern sense? What can he do that an uneducated man—uneducated in the modern sense—cannot do?

I suggest that, in the first place, a man educated in the modern sense has mastered the fundamental tools of knowledge: he can read and write; he can spell the words he is in the habit of using; he can express himself clearly orally or in writing; he can figure correctly and with moderate facility within the limits of practical need; he knows something about the globe on which he lives. So far there is no difference between a man educated in the modern sense and a man educated in any other sense.

There is, however, a marked divergence at the next step. The education which we are criticizing is overwhelmingly formal and traditional. If objection is made to this or that study on the ground that it is useless or unsuitable, the answer comes that it "trains the mind" or has been valued for centuries. "Training the mind" in the sense in which the claim is thus made for algebra or ancient languages is an assumption none too well founded; traditional esteem is an insufficient offset to present and future uselessness.

A man educated in the modern sense will forego the somewhat doubtful mental discipline received from formal studies; he will be contentedly ignorant of things for learning which no better reason than tradition can be assigned. Instead, his education will be obtained from studies that serve real purposes. Its content, spirit, and aim will be realistic and genuine, not formal or traditional. Thus, the man educated in the modern sense will be trained to know, to care about and to understand the world he lives in, both the physical world and the social world. A firm grasp of the physical world means the capacity to note and to interpret phenomena; a firm grasp of the social world means a comprehension of and sympathy with current industry, current science, and current politics.

The extent to which the history and literature of the past are utilized depends, not on what we call the historic value of this or that performance or classic, but on its actual pertinency to genuine need, interest, or capacity. In any case, the object in view would be to give children the knowledge they need and to develop in them the power to handle themselves in our own world. Nei-

ther historic nor what are called purely cultural claims would alone be regarded as compelling.

Even the progressive curricula of the present time are far from accepting the principle above formulated. For, though they include things that serve purposes, their eliminations are altogether too timid. They have occasionally dropped, occasionally curtailed what experience shows to be either unnecessary or hopelessly unsuitable. But they retain the bulk of the traditional course of study, and present it in traditional fashion, because an overwhelming case has not—so it is judged—yet been made against it. If, however, the standpoint which I have urged were adopted, the curriculum would contain only what can be shown to serve a purpose. The burden of proof would be on the subject, not on those who stand ready to eliminate it. If the subject serves a purpose, it is eligible to the curriculum; otherwise not. I need not stop at this juncture to show that "serving a purpose," "useful," "genuine," "realistic," and other descriptive terms are not synonymous with "utilitarian," "materialistic," "commercial," etc.,—for intellectual and spiritual purposes are genuine and valid, precisely as are physical, physiological and industrial purposes. That will become clear as we proceed.

#### THE AIM: INTELLECTUAL POWER

It follows from the way in which the child is made, and from the constitution and appeal of modern society, that instruction in objects and in phenomena will at one time or another play a very prominent part in the Modern School. It is, however, clear that mere knowledge of phenomena, and mere ability to understand or to produce objects falls short of the ultimate purpose of a liberal education. Such knowledge and such ability indubitably have, as President Eliot's paper pointed out, great value in themselves; and they imply such functioning of the senses as promises a rich fund of observation and experience. But in the end, if the Modern School is to be adequate to the need of modern life, this concrete training must produce sheer intellectual power. Abstract thinking has perhaps never before played so important a part in life as in this materialistic and scientific world of ours,—this world of railroads, automobiles, wireless telegraphy, and international relationships. Our problems involve indeed concrete data and present themselves in concrete forms; but, back of the concrete details, lie difficult and involved

intellectual processes. Hence the realistic education we propose must eventuate in intellectual power.

We must not only cultivate the child's interests, senses and practical skill, but we must train him to interpret what he thus gets to the end that he may not only be able to perceive and to do, but that he may know

in intellectual terms the significance of what he has perceived and done. The Modern School would prove a disappointment, unless greater intellectual power is procurable on the basis of a realistic training than has been procured from a formal education, which is prematurely intellectual, and to no slight extent a mere make-believe.

## A MODERN CURRICULUM

Aside from the simply instrumental studies mentioned—reading, writing, spelling, and figuring—the curriculum of the modern school would be built out of actual activities in four main fields which I shall designate as science, industry, esthetics, civics. Let me sketch briefly a realistic treatment of each of these fields.

### TRAINING IN SCIENCE

The work in science would be the central and dominating feature of the school—a departure that is sound from the standpoint of psychology and necessary from the standpoint of our main purpose. Children would begin by getting acquainted with objects—animate and inanimate; they would learn to know trees, plants, animals, hills, streams, rocks, and to care for animals and plants. At the next stage, they would follow the life cycles of plants and animals and study the processes to be observed in inanimate things. They would also begin experimentation—physical, chemical, and biological. In the upper grades, science would gradually assume more systematic form. On the basis of abundant sense-acquired knowledge and with senses sharpened by constant use, children would be interested in problems and in the theoretic basis on which their solution depends. They will make and understand a fireless cooker, a camera, a wireless telegraph; and they will ultimately deal with phenomena and their relations in the most rigorous scientific form.

The work in science just outlined differs from what is now attempted in both its extent and the point of view. Our efforts at science teaching up to this time have been disappointing for reasons which the above outline avoids: the elementary work has been altogether too incidental; the advanced work has been prematurely abstract; besides, general conditions have been unfavorable. The high-school boy who begins a systematic course of physics or chemistry without the previous training above described lacks the

basis in experience which is needed to make systematic science genuinely real to him. The usual textbook in physics or chemistry plunges him at once into a world of symbols and definitions as abstract as algebra. Had an adequate realistic treatment preceded, the symbols, when he finally reached them, would be realities. The abyss between sense training and intellectual training would thus be bridged.

Of coördinate importance with the world of science is the world of industry and commerce. The child's mind is easily captured for the observation and execution of industrial and commercial processes. The industries growing out of the fundamental needs of food, clothing, and shelter; the industries, occupations, and apparatus involved in transportation and communication—all furnish practically unlimited openings for constructive experiences, for experiments, and for the study of commercial practises. Through such experiences the boy and girl obtain not only a clearer understanding of the social and industrial foundations of life, but also opportunities for expression and achievement in terms natural to adolescence.

### LITERATURE AND ART SUBJECTS

Under the word "esthetics"—an inappropriate term, I admit—I include literature, language, art and music—subjects in which the schools are mainly interested on the appreciative side. Perhaps in no other realm would a realistic point of view play greater havoc with established routine. The literature that most schools now teach is partly obsolete, partly ill-timed, rarely effective or appealing. Now nothing is more wasteful of time or in the long run more damaging to good taste than unwilling and spasmodic attention to what history and tradition stamp as meritorious or respectable in literature; nothing more futile than the make-believe by which children are forced to worship as "classics" or "standards" what in their hearts they revolt from because it is

ill-chosen or ill-adjusted. The historic importance or inherent greatness of a literary document furnishes the best of reasons why a mature critical student of literature or literary history should attend to it; but neither consideration is of the slightest educational cogency in respect to a child at school.

A realistic treatment of literature would take hold of the child's normal and actual interests in romance, adventure, fact or what not and endeavor to develop them into as effective habits of reading as may be. Translations, adaptations, and originals in the vernacular—old and new—are all equally available. They ought to be used unconventionally and resourcefully, not in order that the child may get—what he will not get anyway—a conspectus of literary development; not in order that he may some day be certificated as having analyzed a few outstanding literary classics; but solely in order that his real interest in books may be carried as far and as high as is for him possible; and in this effort the methods pursued should be calculated to develop his interest and his taste, not to "train his mind" or to make of him a make-believe literary scholar.

There would be less pretentiousness in the realistic than there is in the orthodox teaching of literature; but perhaps in the end the child would really know and care about some of the living masterpieces and in any event there might exist some connection between the school's teaching and the child's spontaneous out-of-school reading.

Of the part to be played by art and music I am not qualified to speak. I do not even know to what extent their teaching has been thought of from this point of view. I venture to submit, however, that the problem presented by them does not differ in principle from the problem presented by literature. Literature is to be taught in the Modern School primarily for the purpose of developing taste, interest, and appreciation, not for the purpose of producing persons who make literature or who seem to know its history; we hope to train persons, not to write poems or to discuss their historic place, but to care vitally for poetry, though not perhaps without a suspicion that this is the surest way of liberating creative talent.

The Modern School would, in the same way, endeavor to develop a spontaneous, discriminating and genuine artistic interest and appreciation,—rather than to fashion makers of music and art. It would take hold of the child where he is and endeavor to develop

and to refine his taste; it would not begin with "classics" nor would it necessarily end with them. By way of showing, however, that a real curriculum is not synonymous with an easy curriculum, I may say that if, as one factor in appreciation, it should be decided that all children should at least endeavor to learn, say, some form of instrumental music, the fact that there are certain advantages to be gained from an early start must decide the "when" and the "how," regardless of the child's inclination or disinclination.

It is none the less true, however, that the child's interests and capacities are in general so fundamental and so significant that the question here raised is not often presented. Most of what a child should do coincides with its own preference, or with a preference very readily elicited. But preference or lack of preference on the child's part is not a sole or final consideration.

The study of foreign languages must be considered in this connection. The case of Latin and Greek will be taken up later; German, French, perhaps other languages, are now in question. Languages have no value in themselves; they exist solely for the purpose of communicating ideas and abbreviating our thought and action processes. If studied, they are valuable only in so far as they are practically mastered,—not otherwise; so at least the Modern School holds. From this standpoint, for purposes of travel, trade, study, and enjoyment, educated men who do not know French and German usually come to regret it keenly. When they endeavor during mature life to acquire a foreign tongue, they find the task inordinately difficult and the results too often extremely disappointing. It happens, however, that practical mastery of foreign languages can be attained early in life with comparative ease. A school trying to produce a resourceful modern type of educated man and woman would therefore provide practical training in one or more modern languages.

#### MODERNIZING HISTORY-TEACHING

The fourth main division, which I have called civics, includes history, institutions, and current happenings. Much has been written, little done, towards the effective modernization of this work; so that though new views of historical values prevail in theory, the schools go on teaching the sort of history they have always taught and in pretty much the same way.

"Should a student of the past," writes

Professor Robinson of Columbia, "be asked what he regarded as the most original and far-reaching discovery of modern times, he might reply with some assurance that it is our growing realization of the fundamental importance and absorbing interest of common men and common things." Now the conventional treatment of history is political. Meanwhile, as Professor Robinson goes on to say, "It is clear that our interests are changing, and consequently the kind of questions that we ask the past to answer. Our most recent manuals venture to leave out some of the traditional facts least appropriate for an elementary review of the past and endeavor to bring their narrative into relation, here and there, with modern needs and demands. But I think that this process of eliminating the old and substituting the new might be carried much farther; that our best manuals are still crowded with facts that are not worth while bringing to the attention of our boys and girls, and that they still omit in large measure those things that are best worth telling." If this be true, as it appears to be, the realistic approach may make as much difference in history as in literature.

#### THE PROBLEM OF MATHEMATICAL INSTRUCTION

The subject of mathematics offers peculiar difficulty. Perhaps nowhere else is waste through failure so great. Moreover, even when a certain degree of success is attained, it happens often that it is quite unintelligent; children mechanically carry out certain operations in algebra, guided by arbitrary signs and models; or they learn memoriter a series of propositions in geometry. The hollowness of both performances—and most children do not accomplish even so much—is evident the moment a mathematical problem takes a slightly unfamiliar turn. The child's helplessness exhibits a striking lack of both mathematical knowledge and "mental discipline." It cannot be that this training through failure is really valuable. Finally, a point might even be made on the ground that algebra and geometry as traditionally taught are mainly deductive exercises, whereas practical living involves the constant interplay of observation, induction and deduction. The artificiality of conventional mathematics, therefore, raises a suspicion as to its value,—even were the subjects mastered.

The truth is that the present position of both algebra and geometry is historical.

Now, let us suppose the realistic standard applied,—how much mathematics would be taught, when, and in what form? "Mental discipline" as a formal object is not a "realistic" argument, since, as has been already said, it is an unproved assumption. At any rate, it is for those who believe in it to demonstrate how much good it does most children to make a failure in algebra and geometry. Is the elaborate study of mathematical and spatial relations through algebra and geometry a valid undertaking for its own sake? If so, neither the disinclination of the child nor the difficulty of the achievement is a reason for abandoning it. Disinclination and difficulty in that case simply put a problem up to the teachers of the subject; it is for them to find ways of triumphing over both. If, however, this study does not serve a legitimate and genuine purpose, then the mathematical curriculum must undergo a radical reorganization for the purpose of treating algebra and geometry from the standpoint of the other subjects which they serve. They would be taught in such form, in such amounts, and at such times as the other subjects required. Thus geometry would be decreased in amount by something like two-thirds or three-fourths and the form of the remaining fourth would be considerably modified.

It is interesting to observe that doubt as to the soundness and value of our mathematical instruction has recently become so serious a matter that the Association of Teachers of Mathematics in New England has suggested "a one-year course in elementary algebra and geometry of a concrete sort, designed so far as possible to test the pupil's qualifications for future mathematical study; and Dr. Snedden has raised the question as to why girls in high schools or as candidates for college should be required to present algebra; he has also urged that a knowledge of algebra is of no importance to men following law, medicine, journalism, or theology. Professor Breslich, of Chicago, has been attacking the same problem vigorously from a not unrelated point of view. Without considering any point settled, it is clear that a Modern School which wiped the slate of mathematics and then subsequently wrote upon it only what was found to serve the real needs of quantitative thought and action might evolve a curriculum in mathematics that we should not recognize.

For the sake of convenience, the four large fields of activity have been separately discussed. But it must be pointed out that



the failure of the traditional school to make cross connections is an additional unreality. The traditional school teaches composition in the English classes, quantitative work in the mathematics classes; history, literature, and so on each in its appropriate division. Efforts are indeed making to overcome this separateness, but they have gone only a little way. The Modern School would from the first undertake the cultivation of contacts and cross-connections. Every exercise would be a spelling lesson; science, industry, and mathematics would be inseparable; science, industry, history, civics, literature, and geography would to some extent utilize the same material. These suggestions are in themselves not new and not wholly untried. What is lacking is a consistent, thoroughgoing, and fearless embodiment. For even the teachers who believe in modern education are so situated that either they cannot act, or they act under limitations that are fatal to effective effort.

In speaking of the course of study, I have dwelt wholly on content. Unquestionably, however, a curriculum revolutionized in con-

tent will be presented by methods altered to suit the spirit and aim of the instruction. For children will not be taught merely in order that they may know or be able to do certain things that they do not now know and cannot now do, but material will be presented to them in ways that promote their proper development and growth—individually and socially. For education is not only a matter of what people can do, but also of what they are.

In the preceding sketch I have made no distinction between the sexes. It is just as important for a girl as it is for a boy to be interested in the phenomenal world, to know how to observe, to infer, and to reason, to understand industrial, social, and political developments, to read good books, and to finish school by the age of twenty. Differentiation at one point or another may be suggested by experience; but in the vocational training alone can one assume in advance its necessity. The Modern School, with its strongly realistic emphasis, will undoubtedly not overlook woman's domestic rôle and family functions.

## WHAT THE CURRICULUM OMITTS

This necessarily brief and untechnical sketch will perhaps become more definite if I look at the curriculum from the standpoint of the omissions. Let us restate our guiding thesis: Modern education will include nothing simply because tradition recommends it or because its inutility has not been conclusively established. It proceeds in precisely the opposite way: *It includes nothing for which an affirmative case cannot now be made out.*

As has already been intimated, this method of approach would probably result in greatly reducing the time allowed to mathematics, and in decidedly changing the form of what is still retained. If, for example, only so much arithmetic is taught as people actually have occasion to use, the subject will shrink to modest proportions; and if this reduced amount is taught so as to serve real purposes, the teachers of science, industry, and domestic economy will do much of it incidentally. The same policy may be employed in dealing with algebra and geometry. What is taught, when it is taught, and how it is taught will in that event depend altogether on what is needed, when it is needed, and the form in which it is needed.

Precisely the same line of reasoning would

be applied to English, history, and literature. For example: There has been a heated discussion for years on the subject of formal grammar, which has been defended, first, on the ground that it furnishes a valuable mental discipline; second, on the ground that it assists the correct use of language. It is passing strange how many ill-disciplined minds there are among those who have spent years being mentally disciplined, now in this subject, now in that. The Modern School would not hesitate to take the risk to mental discipline involved in dropping the study of formal grammar. It would, tentatively at least, also risk the consequences to correct speech involved in the same step. For such evidence as we possess points to the futility of formal grammar as an aid to correct speaking and writing. The study would be introduced later, only if a real need for it were felt,—and only in such amounts and at such periods as this need clearly required.

In respect to history and literature, a Modern School would have the courage not to go through the form of teaching children useless historic facts just because previous generations of children have learned and forgotten them; and also the courage not to read obsolete and uncongenial classics, sim-

ply because tradition has made this sort of acquaintance a kind of good form. We might thus produce a generation as ignorant of the name of the Licinian laws as we who have studied them are ignorant of their contents and significance; a generation that did not at school analyze Milton's "Lycidias" or Burke's speech as we did, who then and there vowed life-long hostility to both. But might there not be an offset if the generation in question really cared about the history and politics of, say, modern England or New York City, and read for sheer fun at one time or another and quite regardless of chronological order Homer, Chaucer, Shakespeare, Walter Scott, Stevenson, Kipling, and Masfield?

Neither Latin nor Greek would be contained in the curriculum of the Modern School,—not, of course, because their literatures are less wonderful than they are reputed to be, but because their present position in the curriculum rests upon tradition and assumption. A positive case can be made out for neither.

The literary argument fails, because stumbling and blundering through a few patches of Latin classics do not establish a contact with Latin literature. Nor does present-day teaching result in a practical mastery of Latin useful for other purposes. Mature students who studied Latin through the high school, and perhaps to some extent in college, find it difficult or impossible to understand a Latin document encountered in, say, a course in history. If practical mastery is desired, more Latin can be learned in enormously less time by postponing the study until the student needs the language or wants it. At that stage he can learn more Latin in a few months than he would have succeeded in acquiring through four or five years of reluctant effort in youth.

Finally, the disciplinary argument fails, because "mental discipline" is not a real purpose; moreover, it would in any event constitute an argument against rather than for the study of Latin. I have quoted figures to show how egregiously we fail to teach Latin. These figures mean that instead of getting orderly training by solving difficulties in Latin translation or composition, pupils guess, fumble, receive surreptitious assistance or accept on faith the injunctions of teacher and grammar. The only discipline that most students could get from their classical studies is a discipline in doing things as they should not be done.

I should perhaps deal with yet another

argument—viz., that Latin aids in securing a vigorous or graceful use of the mother tongue. Like the arguments previously considered, this is unsubstantiated opinion; no evidence has ever been presented.

#### EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

So far I have discussed the Modern School only from the standpoint of its course of study. It is time now to mention other implications of the realistic or genuine point of view. If children are to be taught and trained with an eye to the realities of life and existence, the accessible world is the laboratory to be used for that purpose. Let us imagine a Modern School located in New York City; consider for a moment its assets for educational purposes: the harbor, the Metropolitan Museum, the Public Library, the Natural History Museum, the Zoölogical Garden, the city government, the Weather Bureau, the transportation systems, lectures, concerts, plays, and so on. Other communities may have less, but all have much. As things now are, children living in this rich and tingling environment get for the most part precisely the same education that they would be getting in, let us say, Oshkosh or Keokuk. Again, the Modern School is as much interested in the child's body as in his mind. It would, therefore, provide play-facilities, sports, and gymnastics. A study of Gary<sup>1</sup> and of the country day schools, now springing up, should tell us whether the Modern School should or should not seek to provide for the child's entire day. Some of this additional material, we already know pretty well how to organize and use; as for the rest, we shall have to find out.

It is evident that, while in some directions the Modern School would have a fairly clear path, in others it would have to feel its way, and in all its attitude would be distinctly tentative and experimental. To no small extent it would have to create apparatus and paraphernalia as it proceeds. Text-books, for example, almost invariably conform to tradition; or innovate so slightly as to be, from our point of view, far from satisfactory. The Modern School would thus at the start be at a great disadvantage as compared with established schools that seek gradual improvement through readjustment. But it would have this advantage—that it could really try its experiments with a free hand.

<sup>1</sup> The General Education Board has just authorized a study of the Gary schools, the results of which will be published.

## ORGANIZATION OF THE MODERN SCHOOL

President Eliot's paper was called "Changes Needed in Secondary Education." But the habits and capacities needed in a reconstructed secondary school are those whose formation must be begun in the primary school. A modern secondary school cannot be built on a conventional elementary school. If the primary years are lost in the conventional school, the child's native freshness of interest in phenomena has to be recovered in youth—a difficult and uncertain task, which, even if successful, does not make up the loss to the child's fund of knowledge and experience. Nor can the child's singular facility in acquiring a speaking command of other languages be retrieved. The Modern School would, therefore, have to begin with a vestibule, an elementary "Vorschule," in which children would be started properly. The relation between elementary and secondary education would be a matter for experimental determination, for whatever may prove to be right, the present break is surely wrong. So, also, the relation of the Modern School to the American College would have to be worked out by experience.

### POSSIBLE RESULTS

Would the proposed education educate? Many of the disagreeable features of education with which under existing circumstances children are compelled to wrestle would be eliminated. Would not the training substituted be soft—lacking in vigor, incapable of teaching the child to work against the grain? Again, is there not danger that a school constituted on the modern basis would be unsympathetic with ideals and hostile to spiritual activity?

Two questions are thus raised, (1) the question of discipline, moral and mental, (2) the question of interest or taste.

There is, I think, no harm to be apprehended on either score. The Modern School would "discipline the mind" in the only way in which the mind can be effectively disciplined—by energizing it through the doing of real tasks. The formal difficulties which the Modern School discards are educationally inferior to the genuine difficulties involved in science, industry, literature, and politics; for formal problems are not apt to evoke prolonged and resourceful effort. It is, indeed, absurd to invent formal difficulties for the professed purpose of discipline, when, within the limits of science, industry, literature, and politics, real problems abound.

Method can be best acquired, and stands the best chance of being acquired, if real issues are presented. Are problems any the less problems because a boy attacks them with intelligence and zest? He does not attack them because they are easy, nor does he shrink from them because they are hard. He attacks them, if he has been wisely trained, because they challenge his powers. And in this attack he gets what the conventional school so generally fails to give—the energizing of his faculties, and a directive clue as to where he will find a congenial and effective object in life.

A word on the subject of what I have just called the "directive clue." Our college graduates are in large numbers pathetically in the dark as to "what next." Even the elective system has not enabled most of them to find themselves. The reason is clear. A formal education, devoted to "training the mind" and "culture" does little to connect capacity with opportunity or ambition. The more positive endowments, of course, assert themselves; but the more positive endowments are relatively scarce. In the absence of bent, social pressure determines a youth's career in America, less frequently than in more tightly organized societies. But an education that from the start makes a genuine appeal will disclose, develop, and specialize interest. It will, in a word, give the individual a clue.

In this connection it may be fairly asked whether, in the end, it will not turn out that the Modern School practically eschews compulsion. Not at all. But it distinguishes. First of all, the interests of childhood, spontaneous or readily excitable, are of great educational significance: interests in life, objects, adventure, fancy—these the Modern School proposes to utilize and to develop in their natural season. Next, the capacities of childhood—for the learning of languages, for example—of these the Modern School proposes to make timely use with a view to remote contingencies. So far there is little need to speak of compulsion. Compulsion will be employed, however, to accomplish anything that needs to be accomplished by compulsion, provided it can be accomplished by compulsion. Children can and, if necessary, must be compelled to spell and to learn the multiplication table, and anything else that serves a chosen purpose, near or remote; but they cannot be compelled to care about the "Faerie Queens."

and sheer compulsion applied to that end is wasted. If children cannot through skilful teaching be brought to care about the "Faerie Queene," compulsory reading of a book or two is as futile a performance as can be imagined. The Modern School will not, therefore, eschew compulsion; but compulsion will be employed with intelligence and discrimination.

As to the second question—whether the Modern School would not be spiritually unsympathetic, the answer depends on the relation of genuine interests of a varied character to spiritual activity. It is, of course, obvious that, if the Modern School were limited to industrial or commercial activities, with just so much language, mathematics, and science as the effective prosecution of those activities requires, the higher potentialities of the child would remain undeveloped. But the Modern School proposes nothing of this kind. It undertakes a large and free handling of the phenomenal world, appealing in due course to the observational, the imaginative, and the reasoning capacities of the child; and in precisely the same spirit and with equal emphasis, it will utilize art, literature, and music. Keeping always within reach of the child's genuine response should indeed make for, not against, the development of spiritual interests. Are science and such poetry as children can be brought to love more likely or less likely to stir the soul than formal grammar, algebra, or the literature selections that emanate from the people who supervise the college entrance examinations?

The education of the particular pupils who attend the Modern School might prove to be the least of the services rendered by the School. More important would perhaps be its influence in setting up positive as against dogmatic educational standards. We go on teaching this or that subject in this or that way for no better reason than that its ineffectiveness or harmfulness has not been established. Medicines were once generally and are still not infrequently prescribed on exactly the same basis. Modern teaching, like modern medicine, should be controlled by positive indications. The

schools should teach Latin and algebra, if at all, just as the intelligent physician prescribes quinine, because it serves a purpose that he knows and can state. Nor will tact and insight and enthusiasm cease to be efficient virtues, simply because curriculum and teaching method are constant objects of scientific scrutiny.

In education, as in other realms, the inquiring spirit will be the productive spirit. There is an important though not very extensive body of educational literature of philosophical and inspirational character; but there is little of scientific quality. The scientific spirit is just beginning to creep into elementary and secondary schools; and progress is slow, because the conditions are unfavorable. The Modern School should be a laboratory from which would issue scientific studies of all kinds of educational problems—a laboratory, first of all, which would test and evaluate critically the fundamental propositions on which it is itself based, and the results as they are obtained.

The inauguration of the experiment discussed in this paper would be at first seriously hampered because of the lack of school paraphernalia adapted to its spirit and purposes. Text-books, apparatus, and methods would have to be worked out—contrived, tentatively employed, remodeled, tried elsewhere, and so on. In the end the implements thus fashioned would be an important factor in assisting the reorganization and reconstruction of other schools—schools that could adopt a demonstration, even though they could not have made the original experiment.

Finally, the Modern School, seeking not only to train a particular group of children, but to influence educational practise, can be a seminary for the training of teachers, first its own, then others who will go out into service. The difficulty of recruiting a satisfactory staff to begin with must not be overlooked; for available teachers have been brought up and have taught on traditional lines. On the other hand, the spirit of revolt is rife; and teachers can be found whose efforts have already passed beyond conventional limits. With these the new enterprise would be started.





# LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

BESIDES the comment of foreign journals on topics related to the great war, such as "The Indemnity Problem," "The Teutonic-Oriental Alliance," "The Papacy and the War," and "The Cry of Ukraine," there appear on the following pages abstracts of articles dealing with vital American problems. Among these are President Eliot's suggestive discussion of sense-training in secondary education, the statement by Samuel Gompers on the attitude of organized labor toward preparedness, the plea made by Mr. E. E. Rittenhouse for the establishment of a national vitality commission, Mr. Henry Bruère's review of the Mitchel administration in New York City, and the Rev. Samuel A. Eliot's tribute to the prison-reform efforts of Thomas Mott Osborne.

In the *North American Review* (March) will be found articles on "Protection of American Citizens," by David Jayne Hill, former Ambassador to Germany; "The Strengthening of Latin America," by Charles H. Sherrill; "South America and Investments," by Percival Farquhar; "Capitalism and Social Discontent," by Professor J. Laurence Laughlin, of the University of Chicago; "The Spirit of a State," by John M. Thomas, and "Is Prohibition American?" by L. Ames Brown.

We quote (on page 483) from an unusual chapter of personal experiences, entitled "A Soldier of the Legion," which appears in the *Atlantic Monthly* for March. In the same magazine there are articles on "Kitchener's Mob," by James Norman Hall; "The Belgian Wilderness," by Vernon L. Kellogg, and "Business After the War," by Ray Morris. The introductory article in this number is a stimulating essay on Americanism by Agnes Repplier. In the April *Atlantic* ex-President Tucker of Dartmouth writes on "The Crux of the Peace Problem."

The first twenty-five pages of the *Yale Review* (quarterly) are devoted to a friendly review of President Wilson's administration by Moorfield Storey. Then follow articles on "America's Obligation and Opportunity," by George Burton Adams, and "The War and American Democracy," by Wilbur C. Abbott. Other war articles of distinctive merit are "The Campaign in Western Asia," by H. G. Dwight, and "With the British Medical Corps in France," by Harvey Cushing.

"The Federal Valuation of the Railroads" is the subject of an article by Morrell W. Gaines, and among other interesting features of the number are letters written from Russia during the Crimean War by the late President Daniel C. Gilman, of Johns Hopkins University, and a discriminating study of Charles Sumner by Gamaliel Bradford.

Major Robert R. McCormick, of the *Chicago Tribune*, contributes to the April *Century* a thought-provoking article on national defense, under the suggestive title "Ripe for Conquest." In the same number there is a character sketch of "The Terrible Yuan Shih-kai," by Frederick Moore. The principal war article of the number is Arthur Gleason's "Chantons, Belges! Chantons!" Mr. Stanton Leeds writes on "The Greek King and the Present Crisis."

In *Harper's* for April there appears for the first time a detailed account of the wonderful health campaign that has been waged during the past few years in the Philippine Islands by Dr. Victor Heiser, Director of the Health Service. In the same number is Mr. Charles W. Furlong's narrative of a recent voyage across the Atlantic in a shallop.

*Scribner's* continues to specialize in descriptive articles. The March number contains, in addition to Colonel Roosevelt's description of "The Bird Refuges of Louisiana," a series of drawings with descriptive texts of Mexican border scenes by Ernest Peixotto. "A Russian Painter's Impressions of the War," with illustrations in color, and "The Serbian People in War Time," by Stanley Naylor, are features of the same number. In the April *Scribner's* Ernest Peixotto sketches "The Charm of New Orleans," and H. G. Dwight describes "The Holy Mountain of Thrace." Edward H. Sothorn's "Remembrances" has reached the era of the Old Lyceum Theater in New York City.

## OSBORNE, THE PRISON REFORMER

AN appreciation of Thomas Mott Osborne, the courageous exponent of prison reform in New York State, is contributed to the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* by the Rev. Samuel A. Eliot, a college classmate.

After referring to the fact that Osborne comes of Abolitionist stock, and is of Quaker descent, Mr. Eliot speaks of his succession to the presidency of the Osborne Harvester Company, at Auburn, N. Y., the affairs of which he conducted with marked ability and success for sixteen years. He had ambitions for public service, however, became president of the Board of Education, and later was elected mayor of the city on a non-partisan ticket, after an exciting campaign.

Although Mr. Osborne's antecedents had been strongly Republican, he had cast his first Presidential vote for Grover Cleveland in 1884, and has ever since allied himself with the Democratic party on national issues, excepting in the free-silver campaign of 1896.

After retiring from the active management of the Harvester works, Mr. Osborne devoted practically all his time to public service. He was particularly interested in the work of the George Junior Republic, serving for many years as president of its Board of Trustees. He was appointed by Governor Hughes on the Public Service Commission of New York State. A man of education and refinement, a lover of good books and fine music, well able to surround himself with every form of luxury, Mr. Osborne has chosen a career of difficult service and has been compelled more than once to imperil his life and personal reputation.

Acquiring from his work with the George Junior Republic an interest in prison reform, Mr. Osborne next turned his attention to the penitentiary at Auburn, his home city. He became a volunteer prisoner within the walls of that institution and has described his experiences in the book "Behind Prison Walls." This experience led to his appointment to the wardenship of Sing Sing, known far and wide as one of the worst prisons in the United States. The story of his attempt to put in practise there certain principles of prison reform and of the bitter opposition that he incurred from the political ringsters of Westchester County, culminating in his indictment and trial, are

within the knowledge of all newspaper readers.

An acquittal on the first of the indictments—that for perjury—was ordered last month by Supreme Court Justice Tompkins, after testimony for the prosecution had been heard.

Mr. Eliot finds nothing especially novel in Osborne's ideas about prison administration. He has simply succeeded in focusing public attention upon a serious and long-neglected social problem. He is beginning to make people see that prison reform is a business proposition, that our present methods of dealing with crime are a failure, and that we must change both our theory and our practise:

Osborne is no sentimentalist. He demands that the way of the transgressor shall be hard, but he insists that we must treat convicts in such a way that they shall either be cured or kept under such continual restraint as shall guarantee to society safety from further depredations. The practical question he raises is whether men committed to prison are going to come out eager for new crimes or prepared to go straight; ready and able to support themselves by honest work or obliged to prey on society for a living. Are their bodies to be up-built, their hands given skill, their minds quickened, their ambitions aroused, or are they to be left to rot and to plot schemes of revenge when their punishment is over?

Osborne insists that every offender ought to have a prompt and speedy trial; that our jails should cease to be nurseries of crime; that prisoners should be classified and graded. He insists that industrial training should be made the basis of reformatory methods. To teach a convict a trade is to make him master of the art of self-support. He recognizes that many criminal impulses are due to physical causes, so he believes in healthy exercise. He understands that it is only through a reasonable degree of freedom and self-government that a man can learn to live in freedom. Osborne preaches the doctrine of the indeterminate sentence. We do not send an insane man to the hospital for thirty days or six months, but until he is cured and fit to take his place again in society. Osborne demands that our prisons shall be managed so as to develop the germs of good that are still lying in the convict's nature and not so as to communicate the poison of evil until all are dragged down to the level of the worst. He has confidence in human nature and has the courage to act on that belief.

In conclusion, Mr. Eliot ventures the suggestion that Osborne's character and career are typical of the spirit of Harvard. At any rate, he is holding up before the nation certain ideals that the graduates of Harvard and of every other American college would do well to make their own.

## EXIT MONTENEGRO

SINCE Montenegro's capitulation to Austria, very little reliable information has been published in this country relative to the change in the situation and prospects of that mountain people or the manner in which the Central Powers are likely to utilize their acquisition. In *Land and Water* (London) Mr. Alfred Stead, who was with the rear guard of the Serbian army, and who recently returned from Rumania, gives the story of the episode.

While attributing courage to the Montenegrin people, Mr. Stead belittles their value as a fighting element in the present war. Indeed, he deems it doubtful whether "there was ever a moment after the war began when Montenegro's rulers were not actuated solely by desire that any participation in hostilities should be directly beneficial to themselves." From a military standpoint, Mr. Stead declares that to the Entente Allies the loss of Montenegro as it was utilized has no importance whatever. It is true that within the frontiers of Montenegro were situated the dominating artillery positions overlooking the Bocche di Cattaro, but no real effort had been made to place heavy guns on these positions, and the Austrian fleet was permitted to use this magnificent natural harbor at will. The excuse given was that had such an attempt been made the Austrians would have occupied Lovchen before the guns could have reached there.

As to the probable results of the Austrian occupation, Mr. Stead summarizes his conclusions as follows:

The occupation of Montenegro, while it enables Austria to complete the subjugation of the Serbian peoples and secure her occupation of Cattaro, must mean leaving a large garrison in the country. It also means feeding the whole population, since otherwise there will undoubtedly be guerilla warfare. The chance of using the manhood of Montenegro as soldiers (as has been done in Serbia) does not present many attractions, since the Montenegrin fighter is of small value in a modern army. One result is that now the ultimate inclusion of Montenegro into a greater Serbia is hastened—in any event it was only a question of a short time.

The military assistance given to the Allied cause was never great; the anxieties and worries in connection with keeping the governing régime supplied with money, and at the same time endeavoring to benefit the deserving population, were very great. It is probably no exaggeration to say that to-day the conclusion of the Montenegrin chapter comes as relief to the Allies rather than as a surprise. For long it has been known that it only needed an opportunity for an Austrian desire to accomplish the occupation, partial or total, of Montenegro. And it must not be forgotten that the future of Montenegro is not settled to-day nor will be until the final settlement after the war—and in that settlement the evidence of the past four years will be weighed and known.

As the wave of Austro-German occupation of the lands of the Serbians is rolled back, a free Montenegrin people, untrammelled by corrupt government, will play a part, and in so doing achieve a real national existence.

## THE INDEMNITY PROBLEM

WITH the anticipation of an early peace in the world war, neutral nations are more interested in the question of the payment of huge "indemnities" to the victorious group of belligerents than in any other phase of the war. The payment of billions of dollars by one group of nations to another cannot fail to have a profound influence on the whole future mercantile, industrial, and military development of both the victor and the vanquished. Even should the war, as sometimes seems likely, end in a sort of stalemate, large sums of cash are pretty sure to be handed over in return for some territorial concessions. With characteristic Dutch thrift, the people of Holland are taking stock of the nations at war, their financial resources and industrial prospects, and are discussing the important question of indemnities carefully and without undue heat of passion.

"Aside from the morality of levying indemnities," says the *Vrede door Recht* (Peace by Right), "every war indemnity collected by the victor in one of the world's past wars has had the necessary consequence of embittering the vanquished people and of creating a desire among them to 'wipe out the disgrace,'—thereby again providing causes for future wars. But even in a much broader sense is it undesirable. One does not need to possess exceptional historical knowledge to be able to read in the history of the past 'indemnities' the future of any indemnities levied and collected at the end of the present war."

The demoralizing influence of a "rain of billions" upon a nation can be easily traced in the

case of France and Germany in 1870-71. The 5,000,000,000 francs which France paid to Germany during the years 1871-72, and 73 created in the latter country an unhealthy prosperity wave, accompanied by overspeculations, watered stocks and formations of fake companies. The people as a whole suffer so much in a war that even at best an indemnity is but a small payment for their troubles. In 1870-71 Germany lost 130,000 men,—in the first eighteen months of the present war about twenty times as many! In 1870-71 Germany's immediate expenses figured at about 1,000,000,000 francs; her subsequent outlay for war material, provisions and supplies about 1,400,000,000 francs. Even counting all the other expenditures, directly and indirectly due to the war, Germany did not pay out more than 4,000,000,000 francs. When the French paid their \$1,000,000,000 indemnity, they "made good" all of Germany's outlay and, in addition, paid 1,000,000,000 francs.

In the present war Germany spent more than 18,000,000,000 francs (\$3,600,000,000) during the first eighteen months,—or one and one-half times as much as the entire value of the railway systems of the empire, station buildings and rolling

stock included. Great Britain took up new public debts to an amount four times as large as the sums she was able to "write off" during the entire 19th Century. Because of its large loans, Germany will be compelled to pay out annually at least 2,000,000,000 francs more in interest and cancellations, than heretofore,—it is unthinkable that it could collect such an amount from Great Britain, for Great Britain had all it could do even before the war to pay its own interest on the huge public debt. Germany, on the other hand, which entered upon an ambitious program of naval expansion, would be compelled practically to double the income that she now receives from taxation!

More than one of the nations involved will find it an unsolvable problem to restore their industries and finances without repudiating their obligations, without admitting official bankruptcy. Would it be possible for the victors under such conditions to enforce the payment of an indemnity? No!

Aside from a payment to Belgium, which at any rate would only be a comparatively small sum, a war indemnity would be undesirable, almost impossible, or at least highly improbable.

## A TEUTONIC-ORIENTAL ALLIANCE

AN article presenting the Teutonic view of the necessity of a great Central European power with the Orient as an auxiliary, appears in a recent number of the *Österreichische Rundschau* (Vienna). The writer, Dr. Paul Rohrbach, explains Austria's position and course of action, the reasons why Germany backed her up, and suggests the formation of a German-Austro-Hungarian power—"Central Europe"—in order to secure the permanent independence of those countries, with the addition of the Orient as an auxiliary power.

In order that this Central-European-Oriental alliance may rest upon a lasting foundation, the writer specifies several prior conditions that must be met: Firstly, removal of the Serbian bar—this has already been broken. The connecting link, Bulgaria, must enter the alliance under conditions that will be to her present and permanent interest. Nor does this problem offer serious difficulties—it has indeed been already essentially solved. The second and third conditions must be fulfilled at the Bosphorus and the Suez Canal. This means a radical change of attitude on the part of Central Europe towards Russia as well as towards England. The writer refers to the long friendship between Germany and Russia. He cites Bismarck's remark that all the Balkans were not worth the life of a single Pomeranian grenadier.

Russia has always aimed at Constantinople, but only since the railroad has converted her fertile Southern soil into a great export wheat region, has the question of the dominion over the Turkish straits become a vital issue for her. Seventy per cent. of her grain exports pass through the Black Sea and the Bosphorus. The closing of the latter means the end of Russia's economic life, hence she must possess the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles and predominate in the Balkans. But should Russia control the Balkans, Austria would be completely encircled.

Why can Germany not allow this Russian expansion? The murder of the Austrian heir to the throne, was connived at by Serbian official circles. Had Austria accepted an excuse of the Serbian Government, it would have meant her political dissolution. Germany was compelled to say: "This is the last time we shall be able to cover Austria's rear." Had they not done that the Russian frontier would ultimately have stretched to the Alps and the Adriatic. Germany could do but one of two things,—deliver up Austria, or, in conjunction with her, set her face against the onset of the Entente Powers.

The third and last, but not least important, point of security lies on the road to Egypt. England will be compelled to use the freedom of the seas if we can at some point exert a pressure against her political structure. That point is the Suez Canal. Should we proceed vigorously, the freedom of the seas will be secured. In reality, England's doom is already sealed. Scarce any one believes in the Salonika humbug. The Berlin-Constantinople line is secure and covered; the line to Anatolia (Asia-Minor) is in great part completed. Kitchener, Grey and their associates may try as they will, Greece and Rumania, will not swallow the bait. Belgium and Serbia bet on the English card,—they have lost; Italy bet on the English card,—it will lose



before long. There are footprints, indeed that lead into the English allied cave, but none that lead out of it.

The construction of the Suez Canal was England's doom. It is her misfortune that with its acquisition she was rendered open to attack by land. From the moment that Egypt became Eng-

lish, England was forced to begin a struggle against Turkey's future. Hence, her alliance with Russia and France. But the sum of these events necessarily bred the thought of a Central European power, and an indirect Central European-Oriental partnership in the coming readjustment of world conditions.

## ITALY'S TOURIST TRADE

AS the crushing financial burdens imposed by the war are believed to press more heavily upon Italy than upon any other of the great powers, the attention of thoughtful Italians is naturally directed toward safeguarding her sources of national income.

One of the most important of these has long been the money expended in Italy by the thousands of foreign tourists who have annually visited that country, drawn thither by the potent charm of its historic associations and its wonderful art treasures. A recent estimate places the sum expended by them each year at \$100,000,000. At present, however, just when Italy most needs money, this golden stream is cut off, and the fear has been expressed that even after the close of the war the number of tourists may be smaller than in the years previous to its outbreak.

Undoubtedly countries like the United States, for instance, which has profited largely by the exceptional demand created for its productions, and perhaps in a lesser degree some of the South American countries, may send more visitors than before the war, but the necessity for strict economy in the lands that have been devastated by military operations, or impoverished by loss of trade and heavy taxation, will necessarily discourage foreign travel.

Moreover, the Germans, who have furnished in times past one of the largest contingents of travelers to Italy, will almost certainly avoid that country for a time because of the resentment produced by Italy's failure to uphold the Triple Alliance.

The necessity for taking timely action in this matter, and the best course to pursue, furnish material for an article in *Nuova Antologia* (Rome). The writer says:

In wartime no state should permit the destruction of any of the great industries or undertakings upon which it will have to count in time of peace, just as little as in time of peace it should permit the destruction of industries upon which it would have to depend in wartime. Otherwise it would inevitably encounter defeat

in war, and would be reduced to a state of economic inanition under peaceful conditions.

The tourist trade as a source of national income and as a substitute for taxation, is of enormous value to Italy; indeed, as a means of settling international obligations it is almost indispensable for our land. Hence, nothing could be more unreasonable than to let the hotel business become demoralized, as upon it will rest the task of reviving the tourist trade.

This led us to propose, a year ago, that payment of the rental charge of hotels should be postponed, a proposal that was only adopted in part, payment for half of these rentals being adjourned until the end of the war, interest at the rate of 5 per cent. a year to be charged in the meanwhile. Now, however, in view of the prolongation of the war, it becomes necessary to make similar provisions for the remaining half of the rent. If we are unwilling to allow the manager of a hotel to pay his entire rent in promissory notes or other instruments of credit, a special fund should be established, if necessary with state aid, to finance that half of the rent hotelkeepers are now required to pay while the war lasts.

This writer is evidently a firm believer in the advantages of publicity, and he calls attention to the erroneous idea prevailing among Italians that the beauties and attractions of their country are known everywhere throughout the civilized world. He holds that Italy should emulate the example set by Switzerland in getting up a magnificent volume on the beauties of that country, with attractive illustrations, a volume interesting to the general public and well adapted to be offered as a prize in schools, and issuing this at a price below the cost of publication. The wide circulation that such a book would have in foreign lands would do much to spread a knowledge of the beauties of Italian scenery, and, above all, of the historic monuments and the art treasures of Italy.

The leading foreign magazines and newspapers should also be utilized to the fullest possible extent in the propaganda. In this connection the writer notes that the cost of adequate publicity is so great that it could only be borne by the state, and he cites the instance of a newspaper that demanded \$50,000 a year for "advertising Italy."

## "NATIONALIZING" ITALIAN INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE

IT may be regarded as one of the forerunners of peace, that in the belligerent countries attention is being more and more directed toward the gigantic financial and economic problems that must be solved after hostilities have ceased. *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) offers a contribution to the discussion of some of these problems, by Prof. Ghino Valenti, of Siena. The writer dwells at considerable length upon the successful commercial propaganda carried on by Germany in the past few decades, and while condemning certain of its methods, is obliged to concede its effectiveness.

As a rule the Germans have been sparing of large investments in Italian industrial undertakings, and have been clever enough to secure a considerable measure of influence in concerns largely or entirely founded by Italian capital. Sometimes German money has been used to start an enterprise, and its capable and remunerative management has soon attracted Italian capitalists, obviating the need of further German investment, and sometimes even permitting the withdrawal of the German capital already engaged. The essential point was that the commercial sources and connections of the Italian concerns should be German, thus ensuring large importations of German materials and products.

The war has, of course, temporarily nullified everything that Germany had accomplished along these lines, and at present the feeling in Italy, as in the other Entente countries, is decidedly opposed to any resumption of the former friendly, and too dependent relations with Germany. Before the war, on the other hand, German industrial and commercial penetration had been noted by only a few as a grave danger for Italy's economic status, the general trend of opinion being that it offered an opportune remedy for her deficiencies.

Of industrial conditions before the war and of the changes likely to result from it, the writer presents the following considerations:

In Italy but little steel was manufactured, because this material was furnished by Germany. Now, however, this industry is growing under pressure of the necessity for making good the interrupted importations. Capital is flowing into this channel that would not otherwise have been so employed, from fear of the crushing German competition. Who knows but that the end of the

war may find the industry so firmly established that it can maintain itself even under normal conditions? Munition factories are springing up here and there in our land, and these factories may eventually be utilized for the manufacture of the chemical products, especially the dyes, which have come to us almost exclusively from Germany. We already know to-day that certain of these munition plants are to be transformed into factories for the production of electric supplies, for which we have heretofore been forced to depend upon importations.

The whole problem is comprised in the word *nationalize*. But since this word excites a train of ideas, and perhaps of objection, we must explain it briefly. Nationalizing does not mean that Italy should become a closed field economically, so that she would have to content herself with the little that she can produce and renounce the rest. In this way our country would be condemned to retrogression as compared with the past and to remaining almost stationary as regards the future, for it is clear that if we give up importing from other lands, it would become impossible for us to send exports to them.

Nationalizing signifies developing the native resources to their fullest extent, so that nothing shall be imported that can be properly produced in the home country. This would be a great gain for our economic situation, as up to the present time we have annually been debtors to foreign countries in the sum of \$200,000,000, because of the excess of imports over exports. This indebtedness has been offset by various credit items, principally by the money spent in Italy by foreign tourists, and also by the remittances sent from foreign lands by our emigrants.

These credits, in the writer's opinion, should not have to serve merely in liquidation of foreign debts, but should be made to constitute a clear gain for Italy, as they would do if the excess of imports over exports was done away with. To this end every effort should be made to stimulate the exportation of the best Italian products, as for example, of the finer vegetables and fruits which Italy can furnish because of favorable conditions of climate and soil.

Above all, the home industries must be thoroughly reorganized and rendered more efficient, and Professor Valenti insists strongly upon the necessity of appointing foreign agents to make special investigations in foreign lands as to the opportunities for extending Italian commerce. Here, again, the example set by Germany extorts praise even from an enemy, for it is impossible to overestimate the value of the work done by German consular agents in opening up new markets for German goods and in strengthening the hold of German commerce upon the old markets.

## THE PAPACY AND THE WAR

THE attitude of Pope Benedict XV in regard to the war, and his earnest efforts to mitigate some of its harsher aspects and to further the cause of peace, are impartially and critically considered by Signor Giuseppe Manacorda in *Rassegna Nazionale*. At the outset, he calls attention to the fact that nothing serves better to hold the Pope and the Roman Church aloof from the conflict of interests than the absence of any temporal possessions. Only under these circumstances can the Papacy be free from the temptation to side with one or other of the contesting groups, and the maintenance of this position depends upon a frank acceptance of the new status dating from 1870.

While it must be borne in mind that this article is written by one of the liberal Catholics, and hence cannot be taken as expressing the ideas of the clericals, the following passage will be of interest both for Roman Catholics and Protestants, although the latter can scarcely be expected to share the writer's enthusiastic faith in the power of his Church:

Often enough has the Church entered into one of those alliances called "holy" because the Pope was a party thereof, but which, on the contrary, were as purely and simply secular as any others. Indeed, history shows that the States of the Church were so governed by the all-powerful laws of political action, that when it seemed opportune they were even willing to embark in a war of conquest such as that which Clement VIII advocated against Ferrara, toward the end of the sixteenth century, moved by the purely practical and materialistic motive of extending the boundary of the Papal States up to the River Po, so as to secure a stronger and more defensible frontier.

I do not believe there is to-day in Italy a single sincere Catholic, cultured and impartial, who is disposed to deny to the capture of Rome, in 1870, the almost religious service of having restored to the Church its primitive character of an exclusively spiritual power, and since such a power is unique in the world, it appears to-day the most august of all.

The Church alone can, if she will, pronounce the word that will sink deep into the hearts of the peoples and will most move them, since it is known that she alone can speak, when she wills so to do, even against her own apparent interest. In the midst of such a subversion of the idea of God, invoked on one side and on the other by the leaders of opposing countries, often supported in this by the foremost ecclesiastical dignitaries, it is hard for the afflicted peoples to avoid doubt and distrust; it is hard for them to refrain from asking themselves in what degree the religious ideal, the most perfect of all, has become enslaved to state policy. Only the voice of Peter can resound above the clash of arms, far-sound-



POPE BENEDICT XV

ing as the voice of God, if he be willing to again become "a fisher of men," a rescuer of shipwrecked humanity!

The chief impediment in Italy to the peace propaganda of the Pope is the distrust of his policy felt by the anti-clericals. In regard to this Signor Manacorda says:

In the anti-clerical and the Masonic press there is no inclination to ridicule as puerile the pacifist efforts of Benedict XV, but a hidden and oblique aim is ascribed to them: to acquire a certain status in the diplomatic world; to negotiate with the different cabinets; to propose himself for the rôle of peace-maker; above all, to find an opening for the Church in the future European Congress, where she can assert herself, especially in regard to Italy, as being still a power.

Now, if it be exceedingly difficult to pass judgment upon the intentions of others, it is still more difficult, or even impossible, to tell what share in the initiative of Benedict XV should be assigned to sentiment, pity and Christian charity—elements which surely cannot be pronounced foreign to the acts of the Pontiff—and what share belongs to political considerations. That the latter are wholly absent not even the most devoted admirer could affirm. Benedict XV, with a mind wrought and tempered by diplomatic training, does not seem to aspire to rival his predecessor in goodness, sentiment and simplicity.

What can then be the political aim which induces the Pope to pursue the course he follows? To affirm and impose the Church as a power? Or

has he not some different aim? For my part, I believe that Benedict XV neither lacks the talent nor the ability necessary to make full use of a fortunate opportunity—one historically unique, which the events of the past fifty years have given the Church by despoiling her of her temporal power, a most fortunate opportunity, I repeat, for a genuine and legitimate *revanche*,

neither in the political nor in the territorial sphere, but purely religious and social.

If I am not mistaken, the hour of the Church is approaching. From the period of the Counter Reformation down to the present day she has never perhaps encountered so propitious a combination of circumstances as the present time offers for a spiritual re-birth.

## ELIHU ROOT ON THE NEW INTERNATIONAL LAW

SOME things that may be done after the war to rebuild the fabric of international law so rudely shaken, if not shattered, by the great conflict, are indicated by ex-Senator Elihu Root, who was Secretary of State in the Roosevelt administration, in the *World Court*, the monthly magazine published by the International Peace Forum (New York).

"When this war is ended," says Mr. Root, "the civilized world will have to determine whether what we call international law is to be continued as a mere code of etiquette or is to be the real body of laws imposing obligations much more definite, and inevitable, than they have been heretofore. It must be one thing or the other. Vague and uncertain as the future must be, there is some reason to think that after the terrible experience through which civilization is passing there will be a tendency to strengthen, rather than abandon, the law of nations."

There is one weakness of international law as a binding force which, in Mr. Root's opinion, can be avoided only by radical change in the attitude of nations toward violations of the law.

Up to this time breaches of international law have been treated as we treat wrongs under civil procedure, as if they concerned nobody except the particular nation upon whom the injury was inflicted and the nation inflicting it. There has been no general recognition of the right of other nations to object. In general, states not directly affected by the particular injury complained of have not been deemed to have any right to be heard about it. It is only as disinterested mediators in the quarrels of others, or as rendering good offices to others, that they have been accustomed to speak, if at all. Until the first Hague Conference that form of interference was upon sufferance.

If the law of nations is to be binding there must be a change in theory. And violations of the law of such a character as to threaten the peace and order of the community of nations must be treated by analogy to criminal law. They must be deemed to be a violation of the right of every civilized nation to have the law

maintained and a legal injury to every nation. Next to the preservation of national character the most valuable possession of all peaceable nations, great and small, is the protection of those laws which constrain other nations to conduct based upon principles of justice and humanity.

Without that protection there is no safety, for the small state, except in the shift-currents of policy among its great neighbors, and none for a great state, however peaceable and just may be its disposition, except in readiness for war. International laws violated with impunity must cease to exist, and every state has a direct interest in preventing those violations which, if permitted to continue, would destroy the law. Wherever in the world the laws which should protect the independence of nations, the inviolability of their territory, the lives and property of their citizens are violated, all other nations have a right to protest against the breaking down of the law. Such a protest would not be an interference in the quarrels of others.

Mr. Root is convinced that codification is especially necessary in the case of the law of nations, because there are no legislatures to make the law, and there are no judicial decisions to establish by precedent what the law is. Students of international law have always had to resort to text-writers and to depend upon a great variety of statements differing among themselves, inconsistent, frequently obscure and vague, capable of different interpretations—in short, without any clear and definite standard enabling one to say unequivocally what the law is on any given point.

Furthermore, so rapid have been the recent changes in conditions and in international relations that they have outstripped the growth of international law itself. Mr. Root's observation and experience lead him to conclude that the law of nations at the present time does not come so near to covering the field of international conduct as it did fifty years ago. The situation, therefore, calls for codification. As Mr. Root puts it, we cannot wait for custom to lag behind the action to which the law should be applied.



## A SOLDIER OF "THE LEGION"

MUCH has been written of the famous "Foreign Legion" and its gallant conduct during the war, notably in the Champagne, where it won back more than 400 kilometers of trench line. In the composite of nationalities from which the regiment was made up,—called by the Arabian bugler "The international stew,"—there were a few men of American birth who gave a good account of themselves in the fighting. One of these, a Californian, Mr. E. Morlae, is the son of a French immigrant who served as sergeant in the French army in 1870. Two days after the war began Mr. Morlae left Los Angeles for Paris, where he enlisted in the Foreign Legion. On returning to America, wounded in neck and knee, he came to Boston, where the editors of the *Atlantic Monthly* obtained his story, which appears in the March number of that magazine.

On an August day in 1915, the Foreign Legion was reviewed by the President of France and General Joffre. On that day the regiment was presented by President Poincaré with a battle flag. This ceremony marked the admission of the Foreign Legion to equal footing with the regiments of the line. Two months later (October 28) the remnants of the regiment were paraded through the streets of Paris, and with all military honors this same battle flag was taken to the Hotel des Invalides, where it was decorated with the cross of the Legion of Honor, and placed between two other famous standards that had been borne by French troops in the Franco-Prussian war of 1870-71. Although the flag is thus reverently preserved, the regiment itself may be said to have gone out of existence. The vast majority of its members are lying to-day on the battlefield of La Champagne. They are described by this American survivor as "adventurers, criminals, fugitives from justice, drunkards, thieves," and yet, he says, "I am proud of them,—proud of having been one of them; proud of having commanded some of them."

It is all natural enough. Most men who had come to know them as I have would feel as I do. You must reckon the good with the evil. You must remember their comradeship, their *esprit de corps*, their pathetic eagerness to serve France, the sole country which has offered them asylum, the country which has shown them confidence, mothered them, and placed them on an equal footing with her own sons. These things mean something to a man who has led the life of an outcast, and the *Légionnaires* have proved their loyalty many times over.

In my own section there were men of all races and all nationalities. There were Russians and Turks, an Anamite and a Hindu. There were



AMERICAN MEMBERS OF THE LEGION REBUILDING GERMAN TRENCHES IN CHAMPAGNE

Frenchmen from God knows where. There was a German, God only knows why. There were Bulgars, Serbs, Greeks, Negroes, an Italian, and a Fiji Islander fresh from an Oxford education,—a silent man of whom it was whispered that he had once been an archbishop,—three Arabians, and a handful of Americans who cared little for the quiet life.

Of the European members of the regiment one had been a professional bicycle-thief, and when he was killed in Champagne he was serving a second enlistment. One, a Frenchman, who is described as a particularly good type of soldier, had absconded from Paris with his employer's money; another was a Parisian "Apache." The Americans in the regiment, however, were of different types. They included a newspaper artist, a negro prize-fighter, a poet, a lawyer, a Columbia professor, and a professional automobile racer. All these had volunteered for the war, but the rest of the section to which Mr.

Morlae belonged were old-time Légionnaires, most of them serving their second enlistment of five years, and some their third. All were seasoned soldiers, veterans of many battles in Algiers and Morocco. The section complete numbered sixty. Twelve of the number survive, and of these there are still several in the hospital recovering from wounds. More than half the section were killed in battle. Mr. Morlae himself saw eighteen of them buried in Champagne.

The record seems sadder enough, yet this was regarded as the lucky section in the company. Section III, on the night of the first day's fighting in Champagne, mustered eight men out of the forty-two who had fallen into line that morning. Section IV lost in that one day more than half of its effectives. Section II lost seventeen out of thirty-eight. "War did its work thoroughly with the Legion. We had the place of honor in the attack, and we paid for it."

After the charge had been made with the brilliant success that is now a matter of his-

tory, what was left of the Legion held its ground doggedly under the shell-fire of the enemy. Morlae himself had to be dug out after he had been covered by several cubic meters of dirt thrown on him by the explosion of a ten-inch shell. He was unconscious for a time, but soon regained his strength, and with two comrades succeeded in capturing six German prisoners. Then it was that he had this odd experience:

I wanted to know the time and felt along my belt. One of the straps had been cut clean through and my wallet, which had held 265 francs, had been neatly removed. Some one of my men, who had risked his life for mine with a self-devotion that could scarcely be surpassed, had felt that his need was greater than mine. Whoever he was, I bear him no grudge. Poor chap, if he lived he needed the money—and that day he surely did me a good turn. Besides, he was a member of the Legion.

Our hero then placed sentries and was just dropping off to sleep when two of his comrades brought the Captain's compliments and the assurance of an honorable mention.

## DID GERMANY SOLEMNLY PLEDGE HOLLAND'S NEUTRALITY?

A VERITABLE tempest has suddenly broken out in the Dutch press over a question which was asked a short time ago by the Dutch periodical, *Vragen des Tijds*. The daily press first contradicted the periodical, and the government itself has been drawn into the whirl. The question was: "Why has it been kept a secret from the Dutch people, that Germany solemnly pledged herself to respect our neutrality?"

Answering the implied thrust at the government for keeping secret such a vital pledge as this, the semi-official organ, *De Nieuwe Courant* retorts:

It is not true that this pledge has been kept secret; in our issue of August 3, 1914, we said that, "We learn from the best informed authority that Germany has not changed her intention of respecting scrupulously Holland's neutrality!" This declaration was given spontaneously, we believe, to Baron Gevers in Berlin by officials of the German Government.

The *Vragen des Tijds* asks very pertinently since when "according to best informed authority" and "intention to respect" are equivalent to "solemnly pledged her word."

But why did Minister Cort van der Linden dodge the clear answer to the question, by saying: "No secret treaty between the two countries exists!" When von Jagow used the expression in his telegram, why did not the government protest? Of course, the Dutch government is not responsible for the phraseology of an official German telegram, but why did it permit the country to get the idea as if Germany had made the pledge, referred to by von Jagow? And now that the government knows what doubts and perplexities the expression has raised in the Dutch nation, why does it not take the trouble to remove the doubts by a plain statement? What secrets of state can be violated if Minister Cort van der Linden speaks out freely? Why did he say when he was asked if the "solemnly pledged word" was a new promise or merely another version of the German promise of its intention to respect Holland's neutrality—"There is no secret treaty!" Why did he not say: "Holland has not alone no secret treaty but has retained its full freedom of action in all questions connected with the present war, not only in regard to Germany, but also the other warring powers!"

We still believe that such an answer would serve to remove this legend of a secret German treaty in the quickest manner.

The government is to be interpolated in the Chamber of Deputies concerning Minister van der Linden's dementi—now that a hint from this side is coming, perhaps the government will discover that in this case "Silence is silver, and talking is gold!"

## THE CRY OF UKRAINE

UKRAINIA, or "Little Russia," is a territory that at present is divided between Russia, Hungary, and Austria, the bulk lying in Russia on either side the River Dneiper. To the west it stretches to the Carpathians, to the east to the Black Sea and the Caucasus. The inhabitants of this country—the so-called Little Russians of Russia, and the Ruthenians of Austria-Hungary—remember their self-government of long ago, and consider themselves a distinct race entitled to their own preferred form of government, "a language, a history, and a future." An appeal on behalf of the thirty-five million Ukrainians has been compiled from articles by members of the National Ukrainian Association. It includes papers by Edwin Björkman, Simon O. Pollock, Professor M. Hrushevsky, and Professor O. Hoetzsch.

Mr. Björkman states that Ukraine means "borderland"; and that the name was first applied to the steppes along the southern Polish frontier, where the Tartar was a constant menace:

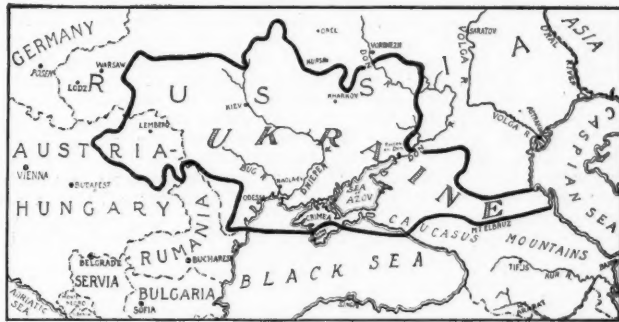
Large numbers of the peasants fled to these steppes to escape the tyranny of the Polish *pans* or Russia *boyars* and there they began to form nomadic organizations with a minimum of discipline. . . . As they grew in numbers and became hardened by their strenuous life, their former masters conceived the idea of granting them land and a large degree of self-government under elected *hetmans* on condition that they should furnish an ever-ready force of defense against the marauding Tartar.

The land and the semi-freedom of these frontiersmen have long since been taken back by the Russian Government, but the seed of freedom has not perished. Ukraine still hopes for an independent national existence, and the Ukrainians are exerting themselves to give to the world the knowledge of their persistence as a separate racial group, and their desire for self-government.

The European territory where the Ukrainians constitute an overwhelming majority or a considerable percentage of the population is larger than Germany and twice as large as France. . . . The original and principal home regions of the Ukrainians are among the richest known to man. Since the days of ancient Greece, they have been one of the world's main granaries. They com-

prise the better part of the black-earth belt (*chornozem*) which reaches from the foot-hills of the Carpathians to the Ural Mountains. The peculiar color and almost unequaled fertility of the soil are caused by the presence in its upper layers of an unusually large proportion—from five to seventeen per cent.—of humus or decaying vegetable matter. As the climate is milder, too, the Ukrainians are able to harvest immense crops of every sort of grain, of Indian corn and beet-root, of watermelons and pumpkins, of tobacco and grapes. And their territory is also rich in mineral resources. Left to themselves, they would be wealthy as Iowa farmers. Instead they are poor—beyond description in some districts—and getting poorer every year.

The Ukrainian people are described as naturally intellectual, possessing taste and poetic fancy, and of gayer and gentler natures than the Great Russians.



HEAVY BLACK LINE OUTLINING UKRAINIAN TERRITORY IN RUSSIA AND AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

(From the Bulletin of the Anthropological Society of Paris)

Art, poetry, and music and craftsmanship have always been at home among them—in so far as their rulers have permitted. They love the theater. Their folk melodies are admired throughout Russia and ought to be known everywhere. They are good workmen, too, and great gardeners. Even a very poor Ukrainian home looks like a house rather than a hut, is kept scrupulously clean, contains some touch of beauty, and possesses a garden patch that yields flowers as well as vegetables.

The Ukrainians were always far in advance of the Great Russians in their learning. When Peter the Great tried to turn Russia into a civilized country, he took his assistants almost entirely from the Ukraine. The names of the novelist Golgol and the poet Taras Shevchenko are associated forever with Ukrainian nationalism. Golgol immortalized the hatred of the free Cossacks for their Polish oppressors in his great novel "Taras Bulba," and Shevchenko, who was at the heart of the whole movement to-

ward freedom, Mr. Björkman writes, is acknowledged to be Ukraina's "foremost prophet, martyr, and genius." Shevchenko was born a serf and set free by Russian literary men who admired his gifts. But he devoted his whole talent to arousing the latent nationalism among the Ukrainians, and was sent by the Czar to Orenburg, Siberia, where for ten years he was not allowed to paint or write. He returned to his native land a wreck of his former self and died at the age of forty-seven in the year 1861.

But his work had been done. His name had already become the rallying cry of his people. On the banks of his beloved Dneiper they raised a simple monument in memory of his faith, his martyrdom and his achievement.

Professor Michael Hrushevsky, Professor of History at the Polish-Ukrainian university at Lemberg, writes of the Ukrainian fitness for self-government:

The widely circulated opinion that the Ukrainian nation is ill-fitted for self-organization is contradicted by historical facts. . . . An immense country, with inexhaustible natural resources, though being exploited in a very disastrous manner, with indications of a future highly developed state of factory and mill industry, and a commerce possessing very important transit facilities and the proximity of the sea, Ukraine has every

chance for material, and subsequently for spiritual, development.

The great fear of Ukraine is that it may be included in the territory of an autonomous Greater Poland. Otto Hoetzsch, Professor of History in Posen and Berlin, writes that the years 1907-1914 have brought about marvelous changes in the Ukrainian national life, that their "nationalistic point of view has been strengthened immensely," and that the "ranks of Ukrainian patriots have grown continually."

In all fields of public life, of political, literary and economic activity, we see everywhere alongside of the representatives of the old generation swarms of young, active Ukrainian intellectuals who have already passed through periods of adherence to the school of the Ukrainian revolutionaries and that of the Ukrainian Democratic Workingmen's Party. Efforts to organize and consolidate are apparent everywhere. The Ukrainian emigrants, in predominant numbers, belong to the young intellectuals. These emigrants were and are still in close relation to the Russian Ukrainians, with whom they are intimately connected by purely personal ties and those of organizations for spiritual advancement. Among the young generation of Ukrainian intellectuals the idea of founding a society for the liberation of the Ukraine originated in 1912. Now in the turmoil of present occurrences, this society, uniting all the parties working for the independence of Russian Ukraine already appears as a serious national-political factor.

## MENTAL EFFECTS OF HUNGER

THE driving force that rules the bulk of humanity, in common with the rest of the animal world, is hunger. And Mother Nature has doubly emphasized the necessity of satisfying the appetite by providing pangs of punishment for the neglect of this duty, and the immediate reward of agreeable sensation for its fulfilment. The very obviousness of these physical effects of hunger may explain why the associated effects on the mind have been but little regarded, or at least imperfectly studied, till a comparatively recent date. The mental phenomena resultant on prolonged hunger, are, however, exceedingly interesting, and even important in their bearing on such sociological questions as municipal feeding of school-children or of other wards of the State. A writer in the *Naturwissenschaftliche Umschau* (Cöthen) gives a résumé of these effects as noted by various scientific and other observers, introducing his article by remarking that in war it is not always possible to feed all the troops regularly,—for example, victorious regiments

may pursue a retreating enemy so hotly that the commissary department cannot keep up with them. He continues:

On this account it is at present of double interest to know the consequences of hunger. In scientific investigations of the mental conditions particularly, which follow complete or temporary deprivation of food, care must be taken to distinguish among different sorts of food-deprivation: voluntary abstention for exhibition purposes as in the case of hunger-artists; compulsory abstention in cases of illness, such as acute fevers, hysteria, and acute mental maladies; hunger caused by poverty, high prices, shipwreck, entombment in mines, etc., the rare examples of abstention with suicidal intent; and finally fasting on religious grounds.

One of the most interesting chapters under this theme is the study of the temporary delirium due to prolonged abstention, as in cases of shipwreck.

The author remarks that cases of shipwreck have furnished unusually reliable data upon this subject, since in many instances there have been included among the castaways physicians, who would naturally be



both interested in making such observations and capable of accurate observation. As a result of such observations it is stated that abstention of food, when not of too long duration, and when voluntary and accustomed, results in stimulated activity of the intellect, and particularly of the imagination. But if this deprivation is too long continued there occurs a singular alteration in the character and behavior of the subject, finding expression in "peculiar irritability of temperament, in extraordinary egoism, and even in frightfulness." The writer proceeds thus:

At the same time unmistakable disturbances of the intellect appear, partial loss of memory, of will-power, and of self-control, and a tendency to obey sudden and irresistible impulses which arise quite instinctively. In more serious cases the mental disturbances become especially marked at night, being exhibited in sleeplessness, startling dreams, oppressive nightmares (alp drücken), sensory illusions, wild visions (Wahnvorstellungen), and dangerous impulses. If such mental disturbances appear also by day a very serious condition is indicated, which may become exceedingly dangerous.

The writer here raises a vitally important point in regard to the legal responsibility for shocking deeds known to have been committed by men who had been suffering from prolonged hunger. The victim of such a condition may suffer both from advanced hallucinations and from ungovernable impulses, so as to be morally unaccountable for his acts. Here is a delicate matter for judicial decision, since it is often impossible to determine subsequently just what the degree of delirium and irresponsibility at the time of a criminal action was. Most curious of all, there is said to be a well-established analogy between the delirium induced by prolonged fasting and that resulting from alcoholic excess, strange as it may seem.

In the mental states consequent on hunger and on drunkenness we find the same disturbance of the intellect, of the moral sense, and of conduct. Both clinical and experimental observations have proved that the phenomena due to over-indulgence in alcohol and those due to deprivation and lack of nutrition are somewhat extensively in correspondence.

## THE LANGUAGE QUESTION IN CHINA

THERE are people in English-speaking countries who consider the question of English spelling an acute one! There are nations of continental Europe in which perpetual dissension reigns with regard to the use or non-use of particular languages or dialects for particular purposes. In short, almost every country has its language question. If, however, linguistic troubles sometimes assume serious proportions in the Occident, they rise to the level of a national curse of the first magnitude in China.

That her language is the most formidable obstacle to China's progress, and hence is the problem that most urgently demands attention on the part of her government, is the thesis of a contributor to the *Far Eastern Review* (Shanghai and Manila), who signs himself "Sans Gants."

China is disunited because of her many spoken dialects; the bulk of her population remains in dire ignorance, because only the fortunate few can find time to acquire a competent knowledge of the written language; and, lastly, linguistic difficulties impose a stupendous burden upon business of all kinds, including that of the government.

If all the officials of the United States had to send in their reports to their superiors in Greek

and Latin, or even in the old English of the time of Chaucer, we would find, as in China, thousands of stylists and copyists in each and every office of the government. This is true in China to-day. The present official class is supposed to be the educated class, but rarely is an individual found who can compose a report or a petition in the proper style, and if he happens to be able to

啓者本行與華俄道勝銀行代匯中國與各國匯兌各國各埠有分行接理匯單交銀快捷本行並接積貯及赤部來往積貯香港年息四厘半六個月四厘北京上海省城香港日本皆有分行代理

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代理人楊樂謹啓

do that much, it is more than likely that he is unable to write the characters in such a form as to present the requisite appearance of neatness.

It has been estimated that from 15 to 20 per cent. of the expenditure on the upkeep of a staff in any office of the government is absorbed on account of the employment of stylists and copyists. One who issues an order or a request is compelled to wait for hours before the stylists and copyists are able to turn it out in the proper form.

If this state of affairs is true of government circles, how much more true is it of the man in business. In nearly every shop of any size in China there will be found a stylist and a copyist. The little shop on the corner or in some side street must seek a public writer or the secretary of some customer to write for him. The immense amount of time and money wasted daily in China in the cause of the style of writing and the making of neat characters is not only appalling but entirely useless.

Out of the approximately four hundred millions of dollars expended every year in China in the administration of the government, it will be found, after deducting the expenditure for the army and navy, that from twenty-five to thirty millions are spent in the upkeep of stylists and copyists. The hundreds of clerks found around the average government office are merely there to write. It would not be an exaggeration to state that 30 per cent. of the total number of employees in the various boards in Peking are there solely as penmen.

No wonder that the Chinese way of expressing the idea that a government office is particularly hard-worked is to say that there are many "documents."

In most of the documents so prepared it is not the idea that has first place. It is first the style, second, the form of the character, and last the idea to be conveyed.

There is much talk in China of establishing compulsory education, but the writer believes that the first step in such an undertaking must be the simplification and unification of the language. Style and calligraphy must be sacrificed to a great extent, before the written language can really become the common possession of the Chinese people.

In spite of the educational movements of recent years, the government is now spending fifty times as much upon the army and navy as upon education. Yet the money devoted to military purposes is largely thrown away, because the army and navy are hopelessly inefficient. The writer believes that the education of the people would, in the long run, contribute vastly more to the building up of a virile nation, able to defend itself against foreign aggression, than the maintenance of an ignorant and essentially unpatriotic army, such as, in his opinion, China now has.

He urges that as soon as possible the government appoint a board of scholars to undertake sweeping reforms in the language. As to the written language:

It has been stated by many that from thirty-five hundred to five thousand Chinese characters are sufficient for the daily needs of expression, no matter what the subject may be, and it should be the first duty of this board to make up the vocabulary of the language. That is, a simple and concise vocabulary, covering the characters that are in ordinary and constant use in the spoken Mandarin, which is very direct and clear, should be first considered. There should be a Chinese dictionary for the man in the street, and this should contain the most useful of the characters. There should be a regular course of study covering a definite period of time that will be consumed in the mastering of this vocabulary. All text-books should be compiled from it, and the dictionary should be able to explain any and all words used the first five years of the school life of the average pupil. In other words, the primary school education should be such as to give the pupil the use of these characters.

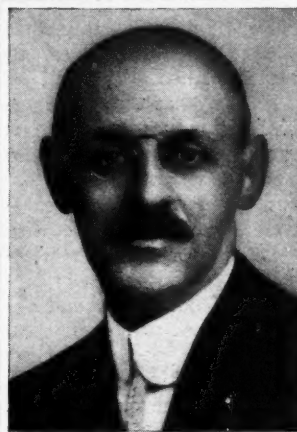
This is in sharp contrast to the immemorial custom of having children of all classes, in case they get any education at all, devote their early years to the study of "classics," having little relation to modern life.

The telegraph code alone is a fair example of the average limit of Chinese expression, and that code, we believe, does not contain over five thousand characters. A complete canvassing of the language for those words found to be most often used, and most expressive of meaning, would evolve a most complete vocabulary for daily use. No text-book should be allowed in schools of certain grades unless it used the words that occur in this vocabulary. . . . For higher education, and purely literary courses, there should be further compilations of dictionaries, vocabularies, etc.

Finally, the writer proposes the abolition of the so-called "correct" character, now used, in favor of the "grass" character, which is much easier and quicker to write. Newspapers should be required to use type corresponding to this simpler form, and it should be employed in all official documents.

With regard to the more difficult problem of unifying the spoken language, the author urges that every effort be made to spread the use of the Mandarin dialect.

In the supplement to the *National Review* (Shanghai) for January 29, will be found an address by the Minister of Education on the subject of the newly invented Chinese alphabet designed to simplify the written language and standardize the pronunciation.



DR. ABRAHAM FLEXNER  
(Author of "The Modern School"  
—see page 465)



DR. CHARLES W. ELIOT  
(Who pleads for revolutionary changes  
in our secondary schools)



CHAIRMAN FREDERICK T. GATES,  
OF THE GENERAL EDUCATION  
BOARD

## SENSE-TRAINING IN HIGH SCHOOLS AND ACADEMIES

DR. CHARLES W. ELIOT'S latest contribution to educational discussion is a plea for the training of the senses in our secondary schools. His argument appears in "Occasional Papers No. 2," one of the publications of the General Education Board.

Beginning with the observation that the best part of all human knowledge has come to us through the senses of sight, hearing, taste, smell, and touch, and that the most important part of education has always been the training of the senses through which that best part of knowledge comes, Dr. Eliot points out two results of this training in the individual besides the faculty of accurate observation,—one, the acquisition of some sort of skill, the other the habit of careful reflection and measured reasoning which results in precise statement and record.

The illustrations of sense training, including the baby's first efforts in observation and experimentation; the opportunities enjoyed by the boy on a farm for training eye, ear, and mind; the discipline of the fundamental trades, such as those of the carpenter, mason, blacksmith, wheelwright, tinker, hand leather worker, and shoemaker, are familiar and obvious. Dr. Eliot's proposition that the training of the senses should always have been a prime object in human education at every stage from primary to professional, seems almost axiomatic, and yet there will be no one to dispute his conten-

tion that this form of training has never in the past been a "prime object" in our educational systems, and is not to-day.

Literature, as he shows, was the chief basis of the education that our modern world has inherited from ancient times. These were its principal materials: Elementary mathematics, sacred and profane writings, both prose and poetry, including descriptive narrative, history, philosophy, and religion, and the study of the fine arts. This latter form of culture has survived in some parts of Europe in far greater vigor than in England or America. In Dr. Eliot's opinion the varied skill of the artist in music, painting, sculpture, and architecture "has been a saving element in national education, although it affected strongly only a limited number of persons."

Since England was less influenced by artistic culture than the nations of the continent, and American secondary and higher education copied English models, being also affected by the Puritan, Scotch Presbyterian, and Quaker disdain for the fine arts, very little time was given in our secondary schools to the cultivation of the perceptive power through music and drawing. As a rule, says Dr. Eliot, "the young men admitted to American colleges can neither draw nor sing; and they possess no other skill of eye, ear, or hand." As far as athletic sports are concerned only exceptional persons acquire a

high degree of skill, which is itself of a coarser kind than the skill required by the artist and the skilled workman.

In only one profession does Dr. Eliot find that educational processes have been changed as a result of the revolutionary developments of the past fifty years in physical, chemical, and biological science. The medical student now receives individual training in the use of his senses, and this training is given by experts in the use of their own eyes, ears, and hands in diagnosis and treatment. It is Dr. Eliot's conclusion that what has already been done in medical education needs to be done in all other forms of education, whether for trades or for professions, whether for occupations chief in manual or for those chief in mental.

The changes which, in Dr. Eliot's opinion, ought to be made immediately in programs of American secondary schools are chiefly these:

The introduction of more hand, ear, and eye work—such as drawing, carpentry, turning, music, sewing, and cooking, and the giving of much more time to the sciences of observation—chemistry, physics, biology, and geography—not political, but geological and ethnographical geography. These sciences should be taught in the most concrete manner possible—that is in laboratories with ample experimenting done by the individual pupil with his own eyes and hands, and in the field through the pupil's own observation guided by expert leaders. In secondary schools situated in the country the elements of agriculture should have an important place in the program, and the pupils should all work in the school gardens and experimental plots, both individually and in cooperation with others. In city schools a manual training should be given which would prepare a boy for any one of many different trades, not by familiarizing him with the details of actual work in any trade, but by giving him an all-around bodily vigor, a nervous system capable of multiform coordinated efforts, a liking for doing his best in competition with mates, and a widely applicable skill of eye and hand. Again, music should be given a substantial place in the program of every secondary school, in order that all the pupils may learn musical notation, and may get much practise in reading music and in singing. Drawing, both freehand and mechanical, should be given ample time in every secondary school program; because it is an admirable mode of expression which supplements language and is often to be preferred to it, lies at the foundation of excellence in many arts and trades, affords simultaneously good training for both eye and hand, and gives much enjoyment throughout life to the possessor of even a moderate amount of skill.

In order to introduce these new subjects in the existing secondary schools of the United States, Dr. Eliot proposes, first, that the memory subjects and mathematics shall

be somewhat reduced as regards number of assigned periods in the week; secondly, that afternoon hours shall be utilized, or, in other words, that the school day shall be lengthened; and, thirdly, that the long summer vacation shall be reduced. There is no good reason for turning city children into the streets for more than two months every summer, and since the new subjects all require bodily as well as mental exertion, they can be added to the memory subjects without risk to the health of the children; provided that the shops, laboratories, and exercising rooms be kept cool and well ventilated. In rural schools, a good part of the new work in sowing, planting, cultivating, and harvesting must be done out of doors.

Dr. Eliot is convinced that every school plant, whether in the city or country, should be used not only by the regular pupils during the hours from eight to half-past eight, and four to half-past four, but by older youths or adults at hours outside the working time in the prevailing industries in the town or city where the school is situated. The efforts to introduce continuation schools and to develop evening schools should, in his opinion, result speedily in a large extension of the American public school system.

Institutions like Hampton and Tuskegee, which show how to learn by actual seeing, hearing, touching, and doing, instead of by reading and committing to memory, point the way for the improvement in secondary schools which Dr. Eliot advocates. "They have proved that the mental powers, as well as the bodily powers, are strongly developed by the kind of instruction they give; so that nobody need apprehend that reduced attention to memory subjects, with increased attention to the training of the senses, the muscles, and the nerves, will result in a smaller capacity for sound thinking and for the exercise of an animating good-will."

#### The Country School of To-Morrow

**A**N earlier paper published by the General Education Board, written by the chairman of the Board, Mr. Frederick T. Gates, pictures a country school "in which young and old will be taught in practicable ways how to make rural life beautiful, intelligent, fruitful, recreative, healthful, and joyous."

For this ideal school, serving a township containing 150 families or more, Mr. Gates requires a group of school buildings to be placed as near the center as possible, and for the more distant pupils he would arrange



daily conveyance in groups. Everybody will be included in the aims of this township school, old as well as young.

Every industry in the district finds place in our curriculum. Every kitchen, barn, dairy, shop, is a laboratory for our school. The growing crops, the orchards, the vineyards, the gardens, the forests, the streams, the domestic animals, nay, even the tools of every farm, are part of our scientific equipment. The horizon forms the walls of our museum of natural history and the sky its roof, and all the life within is material and specimen for our study.

The school would minister to the needs of the community in the matter of health, housing, clothing, and food. Ample school grounds would be necessary for the school itself is to be within the limits of child life, a microcosm of the life of the whole community. On these school grounds the community of children would have a common social and perhaps a common manufacturing and commercial life of its own. Under the guidance of skilled instructors, the children

would conduct farming operations, as well as cooking, sewing, and all the industries existing in the township.

As to the essential features of the old curriculum, the teaching of the three R's, Mr. Gates has this to say:

The moment we cease to pursue the three R's as abstract ends, disassociated with anything which the child has experienced, and bring them forward only when and as the child needs to use them in his business, he will pick them up as readily as ball and bat. We are under no extreme necessity of penning children in a room and chaining them to a bench and there branding the three R's upon them. The difficulties of school life, disciplinary and otherwise, are of the teacher's making. They belong to a false method that has become traditional. How do we teach children to use carpenter's tools, for illustration? By studying pictures of these tools in books or by putting the tools themselves into the hands of the children, with material to work upon, and things to make? Precisely so with the three R's. They are nothing in the world but tools. Give them to the children as tools that they now need in something definitely put before them, and they will learn to use them easily and naturally.

## ORGANIZED LABOR AND PREPAREDNESS

THE opposition of the American Federation of Labor, and especially of its president, Samuel Gompers, to the development of militarism in this country has been made known on more than one occasion. There is more than ordinary significance, therefore, in the fact that the opening article of the *American Federationist* for March is contributed by Mr. Gompers himself, under the title "Justice and Democracy, the Handmaids of Preparedness." This utterance may be taken as a representative statement of the attitude of organized labor in this country toward the current discussion on national preparedness.

Considering preparedness as an economic as well as a civic and military problem, Mr. Gompers insists that the principles of human welfare can no more be ignored in military matters or in plans for national defense than in commerce or industry. "National policies, whether political or military, must be in accord with broad, democratic ideas that recognize all factors and value each according to the service that it performs. There is a human side to all of our national problems, whether industrial, commercial, political or military."

One of the demands emphatically asserted by Mr. Gompers is that all policies and plans for national defense shall be determined by representatives of all the people. Thus the organized labor movement, which holds itself to be the only means for voicing the will and desires of the great masses of American citizenship, asserts its right to representation in all committees, commissions, or bodies that decide upon preparedness for and the conduct of military defense.

The working people of all nations, says Mr. Gompers, are always those most vitally affected by military service in times of peace or war. Since they have been the chief sufferers from evils of militarism, they should be the most interested in safeguarding our own national defense plans from dangers and from evils of militarism, such as have overtaken other nations.

Mr. Gompers distinguished sharply between preparedness and militarism. Both, he says, leave an idelible impression upon the nation, one for freedom and the other for repression. Militarism is a perversion of preparedness.

The labor movement, according to Mr. Gompers, is itself militant. "The workers

understand the necessity for power and its uses. They fully appreciate the important function that power exercises in the affairs of the world." They believe, too, that the very existence of power and ability to use it constitute a defense against unreasonable and unwarranted attack. So there should be ability and readiness for self-defense as safeguards against unnecessary and useless wars.

Among the pernicious results of militarism have been the building up of a separate military caste and the subordination of civic institutions to military government and military standards. It is contended by Mr. Gompers that when military institutions and military service are separated from the general life of the people they tend to subvert the ideals of civic life and to that extent become dangerous to the best interests of the nation. Mr. Gompers, therefore, would democratize thoroughly all military service.

The rights and privileges of citizenship impose a duty upon all who enjoy them. That duty involves service to the nation in all relations of the common life including its defense against attack and the maintenance of national institutions and ideals.

There are no citizens of our country who are more truly patriotic than the organized wage-earners—or all of the wage-earners. We have done our share in the civic life of the nation as well as in the nation's wars. We have done our share to protect the nation against insidious at-

tacks from within that were directed at the very heart of our national life and would have inevitably involved us in foreign complications. The wage-earners stood unflinchingly for ideals of honor, freedom and loyalty. Their wisdom and their patriotism served our country in a time of great need. No one can question that the wage-earners of the United States are patriotic in the truest sense. No one can question their unwillingness to fight for the cause of liberty, freedom and justice. No one can question the value of the ideals that direct the labor movement.

Though we may realize the brutality of war, though we may know the value of life, yet we know equally well what would be the effects upon the lives and the minds of men who would lose their rights, who would accept denial of justice rather than hazard their physical safety. The progress of all the ages has come as the result of protests against wrongs and cruel conditions and through assertion of rights and effective demands for justice. Our own freedom and republican form of government have been achieved by resistance to tyranny and insistence upon rights. Freedom and democracy dare not be synonymous with weakness. They exist only because there is a vision of the possibilities of human life, faith in human nature and the will to make these things realities even against the opposition of those who see and understand less truly.

Very little progress has been made in the affairs of the world in which resistance and insistence are not involved. Not only must man have a keen sense of his own rights, but the will and the ability to maintain those rights with effective persistence. Resistance to injustice and tyranny and low ideals is inseparable from a virile fighting quality that has given purpose and force to ennobling causes—to all nations.

## TAKING STOCK OF OUR NATIONAL VITALITY

THE March number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS contained a brief account of the scheme of compulsory health insurance which it is proposed to inaugurate in the State of New York. The promoters of this project hope to induce other States, and ultimately the whole nation, to adopt similar schemes. In connection with any general system of health insurance it is essential to know how much sickness normally prevails in the community. Comparatively little information has been gathered under this head in the United States. A recent number of *Public Health Reports*, in presenting the results of a community sickness survey made last year in Rochester, N. Y., points out the desirability of having such surveys carried out on a national scale in connection with the decennial censuses, and remarks that "the life-conservation movement of to-

day, as a basis for a constructive program, has a deep need for a scientific and accurate measure of sickness and its effects."

The same need was emphasized by Mr. E. E. Rittenhouse, in his address as chairman and retiring vice-president of Section I, American Association for the Advancement of Science, at the recent meeting in Columbus. This address is published in *Science*. Taking as his point of departure the present agitation in behalf of national defense in a military sense, the author urges that the health and vitality of the nation is a factor of capital importance in the problem of preparedness for war, and that for this reason—if for no other—it behooves Congress to establish a "national vitality commission."

Such a commission should be authorized by Congress and appointed by the President and consist of, say, fifteen members selected from a

list of our most eminent authorities in this field of science.

An official body of this character would command attention and confidence. It would not only enlighten the public, but it would stimulate to action our school and health officials, and the appropriating authorities back of them, in spreading knowledge of individual hygiene and healthful living generally. This would help to check both communicable and degenerative affections which are causing such an excessive drain upon national vitality.

If the State can teach us how to combat germ diseases (which it is doing), why not organic diseases, which are virtually all preventable or deferable?

Modern progress has freed us from many mental and physical burdens. It has given us wealth, comforts, luxuries, pleasures, and opportunities for gaining knowledge far beyond the dreams of our forefathers. It has removed many dangers from our paths and lengthened the average years of life, all of which we gladly acknowledge.

But we must also recognize that while American life strain has decreased in some respects it has increased in others. We must admit that our civilization, in addition to its blessings, has brought us habits and hazards of life and degenerative influences which promote physical deterioration.

One reason why we have been altogether too complacent regarding the health of the nation is that our vital statistics, such as they are, have led to misconceptions.

For instance, the average person interprets the declining general death rate and the increase in the average years of life as a sign that the race is growing stronger, that its capacity to stand the stress of modern life is increasing. The fact is overlooked that the decline in the death rate in recent years is almost wholly due to the saving of lives in infancy, childhood, and early adult life from the germ diseases. These diseases are really accidents. They are not the result of the wear and tear of life. The declining death rate means, then, not that we have grown physically stronger, but that we have learned to step around certain dangers.

Two points of ominous importance in this connection are, first, that "the death rate in middle life and old age from the degenerative diseases has increased steadily for years," and, second, that our population now includes an immense number of physically sub-standard people who, but for modern methods of dealing with germ diseases, would have been eliminated in early life. Science is responsible for "the survival of the weak."

The decline in physical activity has had an important bearing upon national vitality. We have millions of people, mostly bred from generations of outdoor or muscularly active ancestors, who are now working in offices, stores, and the

industries where little or no physical exertion or even concentration of mind is required.

Mr. Rittenhouse draws up, in the form of a "bill of particulars," a long list of "the conditions and reasons justifying the appointment of a scientific commission to investigate and report on the trend of national vitality," including such details as that

A marked increase has occurred in the death rate from diseases of the nervous and digestive systems, heart, and arterial system, kidneys, and urinary system—19 per cent. in ten years.

At least 8,500,000 men (of total 28 million), age eighteen to sixty, have evidences of approaching organic disease or already have it in one or more forms.

Health and life waste from tuberculosis, typhoid fever, and other germ diseases is still excessive; about 350,000 deaths annually.

The mortality from cancer is rapidly increasing. Annual deaths about 75,000.

Accidental deaths have steadily increased and now number nearly 90,000 annually.

Four out of every ten deaths (all causes) are preventable.

Two billion dollars is the estimated annual economic waste due to preventable sickness and preventable deaths in the United States.

The birth rate is steadily declining—especially among the well-to-do classes—and at least 200,000 babies die every year from preventable disease.

There are 9,000,000 unmarried women and 8,000,000 unmarried men in the United States.

The divorce rate is increasing. In Chicago one suit is filed for every six marriage licenses issued.

Not less than 75 per cent. of school children need attention for physical defects or impairments prejudicial to health.

The large number of mental defectives and backward children in our schools presents a serious educational problem.

Idiocy and insanity are apparently increasing.

An enormous number of people are suffering from drug habits and alcoholism.

Medical men claim that victims of venereal disease are rapidly increasing.

Suicides continue to increase and have now reached the enormous total of over 15,000 annually. In ten years, 42,000 people have taken their lives in 100 cities.

America's murder rate is extraordinary. About 80 per million as against 7 to 20 for other nations.

Undoubtedly the Government should bestir itself in dealing with the perennial problem of public health—a problem involving far graver conditions than any to be apprehended from inadequate military resources—but Mr. Rittenhouse hardly makes it clear why this cannot be done by strengthening existing official agencies, especially the national Public Health Service, rather than by creating a new one.

## THE WASTE OF MONEY FOR PUBLIC BUILDINGS

AT this period of each year, Congress spends most of its time framing and debating appropriation bills. Some of these measures relate to the vast governmental organization centering at Washington, and others to national services, such as the postal system and the army and navy. Still others appropriate money from the federal treasury for expenditure in the various States. In this class are bills for pensions, river and harbor improvements, and public buildings.

Under our present system, the requests or proposals for these local expenditures originate in the States; and pressure is exerted upon Congressmen and Senators from their home districts. Each one is tempted to get as much federal aid as he can for his district. The individual harm through such a system is slight, but the cumulative effect is often appalling.

In the *World's Work* for February, Mr. Burton J. Hendrick describes one of these "pork" bills and its journey through Congress. He chooses as a specimen the Public Buildings bill of 1913, which, while typical, is described as "the most odious bill of its kind." He tells us how it was prepared:

The Committee on Public Buildings receives about 5000 bills a session. It decides how many each Congressman and Senator is to have. The favored bills—usually between three and four hundred—are then converted into one great omnibus measure. The omnibus bill contains many needed buildings; with them, however, there are scores that are simply criminal waste. Congress has to accept or reject the bill as a whole. Nearly every Congressman has his favorite item, but he cannot get it passed without voting for all the others. In order that he may go back and face his people, he votes for about 300 post offices—good, bad, and indifferent—in order that he may land his own particular prize. As one Congressman said of the 1913 bill, "it ties together everybody with an item in it." "I understand," said another, "that it has been so scientifically prepared that it cannot be defeated." What the speaker meant was that the items had been so wisely distributed that everybody was bound to vote for the whole bill.

That particular bill was debated in the House for only forty minutes, and passed. It was sent over to the Senate carrying appropriations of \$25,000,000. The Senators added so many items of their own that the completed measure cost the country \$45,000,000.

The bill then went to the President; and

we quote Mr. Hendrick's account of "the final act of this drama":

As his signature is necessary to make the bill a law, Mr. Taft, in accordance with American legislative methods, is entitled to a "slice of pork." Indeed, his power is greater than that of any Senator or Congressman—as great as that of both Houses combined. Mr. Burnett and Senator Sutherland accept this situation. This is pure Congressional logic. Mr. Taft in a few hours will leave the White House and become a professor at Yale, in New Haven, Conn. New Haven, the President's future home, demands a new post office and court house; in fact, to be entirely fair, it sadly needs one. A previous Congress has set aside \$800,000 for this enterprise—a sum large enough to supply all this city's legitimate requirements. I tell the rest of the story in Congressman Burnett's words, from the *Congressional Record*: "President Taft stated to us," said Mr. Burnett in a speech to Congress, "that he would stand for a bill of a certain size and that he was interested in a building he would very much like to have us make an appropriation for, which, as I recollect, we had already agreed upon, which building was in a city where he was expecting to be professor in a college." To which Mr. Austin, of Tennessee, another member of the committee, added: "I said, 'Let us offer him something and get him interested in it and get as large a bill as we can.'" So the New Haven appropriation is increased from \$800,000 to \$1,200,000.

Many specific instances of extravagance are cited by Mr. Hendrick. Utah was "recognized" (Mr. Sutherland of that State having charge of the bill in the Senate) to the tune of \$50,000 post-offices at Eureka, Vernal, and Spanish Fork. One of these towns has a population of less than 900.

Jasper, Ala., with 2500 population, was given a post-office to cost \$107,000. Altus, Woodward, Shawnee, and Durant—all in Oklahoma—were voted post-offices or court-houses costing from \$80,000 to \$125,000.

In all, 303 buildings and sites were provided for in the single year 1913. It has been said that 250 of the items constituted an absolute waste of public funds. Besides the initial cost, Mr. Hendrick holds that each building will be a perpetual drain on the public treasury. The fixed charges on a \$50,000 building investment he figures at \$3500 a year; and in most cases the former cost, under a rental system, was about \$300.

Mr. Hendrick blames the system, not the individuals, and offers a remedy—to take from Congress the power to initiate appropriations for local purposes. Let the Post



Office Department say whether Vernal, appropriations as are deemed necessary be Utah, needs a \$50,000 building to carry on recommended to Congress by the Department of Justice say whether Texarkana, Tex., Senators. Once started, probably no one needs a \$110,000 federal court-house for use would be more pleased with such a system only three or four days each year. Let such than the Congressmen themselves.

## MAYOR MITCHEL'S ADMINISTRATION OF NEW YORK CITY

VIEWING the Mitchel administration in New York, not as an episode, but as the logical outgrowth of ten years' rebuilding of city government and education of the New York public in the merits of better government, City Chamberlain Henry Bruère, formerly director of the New York Bureau of Municipal Research, contributes to the *National Municipal Review* a valuable survey of the constructive achievements that mark the first half of the four years' term of office for which Mayor Mitchel was elected in the fall of 1913. During this period, as Mr. Bruère aptly says at the beginning of his article, "Mr. Mitchel has not electrified New York with revolutionary changes in the organization and character of its government. He has gratified New York by his exceptional success in doing the right thing in the right way, both at the outset of his administration and as each successive emergency has arisen."

In this time his administration has demonstrated its character and quality, and given assurance of the permanent contribution it will make to the city's welfare. It has given the city a government of a non-partisan character. It has emphasized the professional character of municipal administration by seeking qualified experts for executive positions. It has brought to the forefront the social welfare aspects of government activity, and given emphatic and continuing emphasis to economy and efficiency.

The administration has not had presented to it, nor has it created an opportunity for general popular appeal. It has kept itself in the position of recognizing from week to week and month to month the obligation it assumed on entering office to conduct the affairs of the city government with efficiency and devote the resources of the city exclusively to public welfare.

New York, accustomed for years to political pharasaism, has responded with remarkable enthusiasm to political sincerity. Unanimously, the disinterested press of the city has stood squarely behind the administration, no scandals having arisen to shake the public faith in the purposes of the administration as a whole. Public opinion steadfastly has been inclined to assist in the solution of administrative difficulties rather than to adopt an attitude of hostile criticism.

Mr. Bruère emphasizes the advance made by this administration in the character of the appointees for heads of city departments. Prior to Mayor Gaynor's time, it was almost the invariable custom to appoint to these commissionerships either "district leaders," in the New York political sense of the term, or business men with political proclivities. While Mayor Mitchel did not assume that a political leader was necessarily disqualified for public office, he chose wherever he could find them men best qualified, by reason of training and experience, for the particular jobs to be filled. In the departments of Charities, Correction, and Health, the person chosen in each case was one whose training, experience, temperament, and availability made him professionally the best qualified person for the department to which he was appointed. In this sense Mr. Bruère regards the appointment of Commissioners Kingsbury, Davis, and Goldwater as epoch-making in that this was the first definite recognition of special professional training for public service outside the fields of engineering and law.

From a group of men who had chosen public service as a vocation appointments were made to several important public works departments,—Water Supply, Street-Cleaning, and Parks. Appointments to minor positions were made from the nominees of political organizations, representing the parties combined in the so-called Fusion or anti-Tammany campaign of 1913, the mayor having taken the position publicly that wherever he could name men to subordinate positions who were acceptable to the political groups, he would do so, provided they were reasonably competent.

Mr. Mitchel entered the mayor's office after seven years of continuous public service in the city government, and several of his colleagues in the Board of Estimate have had similar careers. This administration, therefore, has identified city government

work as a distinct profession in itself, and, as Mr. Bruère remarks, it will be difficult in future for New York "to accept the familiar official hack who has customarily occupied, but rarely filled, public office" in that city.

Thus far, the administration's most conspicuous constructive work has been done in the fields of social service. Commissioner of Charities John A. Kingsbury has not only advanced the efficiency of his department in routine matters, but has introduced a social welfare point of view as opposed to a public relief purpose.

He is remodeling the aim and method of the city's contact with upwards of 23,000 dependent children, cared for at the city's expense in private institutions. He has organized a department of social investigations to reconstruct disrupted families through social advice and public and private assistance, and to base the aid offered by the city upon a knowledge of family and social conditions, heretofore lacking. He is developing an internal organization taught to view the problem of administering public charities in New York from a public and social community standpoint as opposed to the habits of narrow institutionalism.

Mr. Kingsbury has encountered more opposition, had more battles to fight, and has been subjected to more attack than has any other member of Mr. Mitchel's administration. He inherited traditions of management and service more obsolete than those prevailing in any other department, except in the department of correction. Despite these handicaps the progress which he has made and for which he has paved the way, will make it possible for Mayor Mitchel to leave to the city of New York at the end of his administration a public welfare department brought forward almost a generation's measure of progress during his four years' period of service.

Dr. Katherine B. Davis, the first woman head of a department in the great city to receive appointment, was put in charge of the city's 5600 prisoners. To her were assigned the tasks of providing the facilities for correctional work, of transplanting juvenile delinquents from a crowded city institution to a farm colony, of putting the idle in the work-house to work, of stamping out the drug evil, and "converting a moral shambles into a moral sanatorium." Dr. Davis is now planning and setting in motion a parole system which will deal with prisoners according to their experience, record, and need, rather than the statutory definitions of their crime.

In the health department, Dr. S. S. Goldwater, an expert in administration, has transformed a department of medical avocation to a department of professional public health service. He has placed the heads of divisions, formerly prac-

tising physicians, on full-time service. He has related medical inspection and sanitary inspection to health conditions in workshops, factories, stores, restaurants, as well as in the proverbial back-yard, manure-pile, and slaughter-house of the usual sanitary control. Dr. Goldwater, in two years, has brilliantly demonstrated how to utilize public funds efficiently for social service work, and taught a personnel whose administrative leaders are chosen not from administrative fields but from the proverbially "business-interest lacking" medical profession how to conduct administrative affairs effectively. Effectiveness in the organization of the public health service, and the literal, matter-of-fact application of accepted principles of public health standards to the varied phases of city life are the principal contributions made during the Mitchel administration by the health department. Thus, subway and street-car crowding has been fought not as an infringement of human rights but a peril to human health, unsanitary work-room conditions not as injustice merely to workers but as a menace to citizen health, deceptive patent-medicine traffic not as questionable business but as an obstruction to proper health education.

The Department of Street-Cleaning is planning the widespread introduction of automobile equipment and a more extensive use of mechanical devices in cleaning the streets. Commissioner Fetherston had been trained in the street-cleaning service prior to his appointment, and had been sent by the city to study the street-cleaning practise of European municipalities.

One thing is especially significant in Mr. Bruère's review of the Mitchel administration,—namely, the relatively small amount of space devoted to the police department. Under Commissioner Arthur Woods, who had been trained in police work as a deputy under former Police Commissioner Bingham, the police department is less in the limelight than for many years, but according to Mr. Bruère is rapidly gaining in efficiency and discipline.

The task of police administration in New York is the task of all large city police administrations in America, namely, the transformation of detective work from the shrewd sleuthing of the speak-easy, gum-shoe method to the scientific investigation of the criminal investigator; the transformation of the stick-swinging, amiable doorstep-chatting variety of patrol to the studious observation of neighborhood conditions affecting crime and calling for police action. This, with the training of the police force, not only in the school of recruits at the time of entrance but throughout the period of service, in deportment, in physical condition, in esprit de corps and the varied phases of modern police work, are the preliminary tasks upon which Mr. Woods has been engaged during the eighteen months of his service, while carrying on at the same time the enormous routine duties of administering the metropolitan police service.

## GOVERNORS WHO CANNOT GOVERN

OUR readers will remember Mr. Root's severe arraignment of the "invisible government" which rules our States, in an address delivered in the New York Constitutional Convention and printed in the REVIEW for October, 1915. During the greater part of forty years of his acquaintance, he declared, the State was ruled, not by elected officers but by party leaders at the head of "the system."

The amendment for which Mr. Root was pleading, centralizing authority and responsibility, was adopted by the convention, although as part of the complete constitution it was rejected by the voters. But the movement has not been abandoned.

In an article published in the *Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science (Philadelphia), Mr. Edgar Dawson tells of the conditions which make possible such a situation as that described by Mr. Root. The specific references are to New York, but similar conditions exist in almost all of our States.

First, Mr. Dawson reminds us of the executive power and responsibility concentrated in the President. He alone is elected; and he appoints not only the heads of the ten departments but the principal assistants, deputies, and bureau chiefs as well.

The Governor, on the other hand, is only one of a group of public officials elected at the same time. They are not his aids, and are frequently out of sympathy with him. There is no organization of the work of the State into great departments. The work is distributed (in New York) through more than 150 separate units of administration. Duplications and inconsistencies must necessarily abound. As an instance of overlapping authority: six commissions, forty boards, and four other departments exercise supervision over State institutions for defectives and other dependents.

Mr. Dawson compares the State administration to a corporation which spends forty millions of dollars and employs fifteen thousand servants, but which has no head, no manager, no directing will.

The power of appointment would seem to place at least initial control in the Governor's hands, and thus make him in some

degree responsible for the conduct of the work done by these appointees. But many, if not most, of such officers enjoy a term longer than that of the Governor. They are in office when he comes on the scene, and live after he has departed. Moreover, their removal is hedged about with so many difficulties that it is practically impossible for anyone to control them except the power which can control the legislative as well as the executive force.

Such a power resides in the "invisible government."

Here is leadership, here is a directing will, here is organization in such perfection that it is commonly spoken of as "the organization," "the machine," and these terms are descriptive. It is not elective, it takes no oath of office, it is unknown to the law or the constitution; yet its works are manifest in all parts of the government, its hand guides every public act. . . .

In the State there are two highly developed political parties. In these parties there are no loose ends, no irresponsible agents, no scattered bureaus and commissions. From the head downward, authority is clearly defined, obedience is punctiliously exacted; the hierarchy is closely interlinked, complete, effective.

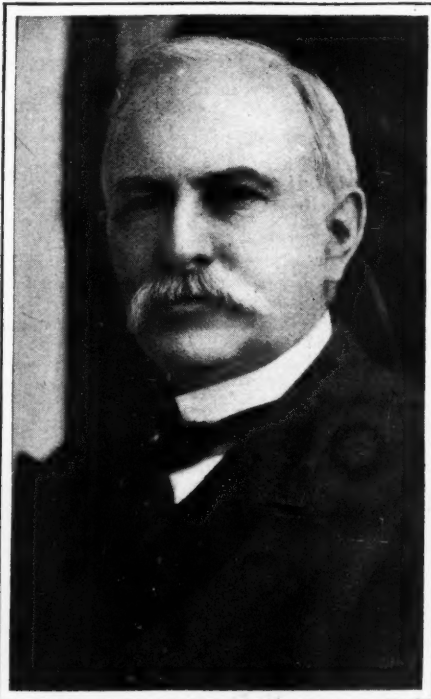
The purpose of each organization is to control the affairs of the State. At the head of each of these parties there has generally been a man of great intellectual power and imperious will. . . . The minor officials know where the seat of power is. They know perfectly well who placed them in office and who will keep them there. They observe the directions taken by the wires which lead to the real master.

It is manifest, declares Mr. Dawson, that the Governor does not govern, that he cannot govern, however serious his intention to do so may be; that the constitution and statutes were drawn with the clear intent that he should not govern.

Mr. Dawson would give the Governor power to control public affairs through appointment and removal, in order that responsibility may rest on his shoulders. He would reduce the number of administrative departments from 150 to ten or twelve, and place each department head under the direction of the Governor. The civil servants, from top to bottom, would then assume a different attitude. Instead of looking to party organizations for encouragement, they would look to the Governor, whose future career depends upon securing efficient service.

# THE NEW BOOKS

## AMERICAN POLITICAL CAREERS



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HON. JOSEPH BENSON FORAKER

**Notes of a Busy Life.** By Joseph Benson Foraker. 2 vols. Cincinnati; Stewart & Kidd Company. 1095 pp. Ill. \$5.

It is characteristic of Mr. Foraker, of Ohio, that he should have given us his own review of his public career, instead of leaving the task to be performed by a biographer after his death. His two volumes, entitled "Notes of a Busy Life," form a most valuable and welcome addition to the political literature of our own times. He was born on July 5, 1846, and will therefore be seventy years old three months hence. He has been in Republican politics for sixty years, having taken his boyish part in the Fremont campaign of 1856.

Although barely sixteen years of age, Joseph Benson Foraker entered the army in July, 1862, where he made a good record as a young officer, and in due time was distinguished as a member of General Slocum's staff, with the rank of Captain. He served three years in the war, and was mustered out just before his nineteenth birthday. In September of '65 Foraker was at

school again, and a year later entered the freshman class of the Ohio Wesleyan University. His last college year was taken at Cornell University, New York; and within a few months after graduation he was admitted to the bar, in the fall of 1869, and began practising law in Cincinnati.

He has remained a Cincinnati lawyer for nearly forty-seven years, during most of which time he has been a prominent figure in the Republican politics of his State and of the country. With his various political campaigns, his service as Governor of Ohio, his conspicuous record as United States Senator, his relations to half a dozen Presidents and many other public men, and his part in the treatment of numerous problems of statesmanship, these two large volumes of "Notes" concern themselves in the most frank and unreserved way. The contemporary politician will be interested in all that Mr. Foraker says about the periods of Taft and Roosevelt. Upon certain subjects, such as Panama and the Philippines, Mr. Foraker's chapters are important as contributions to history. In his treatment of those to whom he found himself opposed in political and personal controversies, he shows for the most part a very generous spirit.

**Theodore Roosevelt: the Logic of his Career.** By Charles G. Washburn. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 245 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

The author of this biography, a Harvard classmate of Colonel Roosevelt, was himself in public life for several years, having represented one of the Massachusetts districts in Congress. He has differed with Colonel Roosevelt on various matters of public policy, but has his own views as to the true meaning of the Roosevelt contribution to American public life. Both friends and opponents of the ex-President will find Mr. Washburn's analysis and comments entertaining and thought-provoking.

**The Life of Andrew Jackson.** By John Spencer Bassett. Macmillan. 766 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

A new single-volume edition of a life of Jackson that has taken its place as on the whole the best and most serviceable of a long line of biographies.

**William Branch Giles.** By D. R. Anderson. Menasha, Wis.: Banta Pub. Co. 271 pp. \$1.50.

The life of a Virginian who achieved greatness in an era of great Virginians,—Representative, United States Senator, and Governor, a friend of Jefferson, and an enemy of Monroe, becoming at last a supporter of Andrew Jackson and a bitter foe of John Quincy Adams. Professor Anderson has written a careful and at the same time readable account of this interesting career.



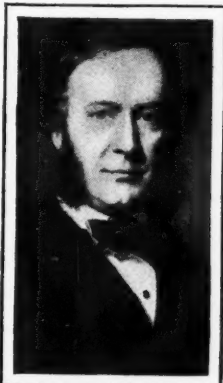
## BIOGRAPHY

**Michelangelo.** By Romain Rolland. Duffield. 189 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

The life of Michelangelo, by one of the most famous of modern French writers. This work is here translated into English for the first time and is entirely distinct from a study of Michelangelo by the same writer which appeared some time ago. The present volume is illustrated profusely.

**Delane of the "Times."** By Sir Edward Cook. Holt. 319 pp. \$1.75.

A life of the preëminent English journalist of the Victorian era, the editor of the London *Times*, from 1841 to 1877, the period covering the European revolutionary movements of 1848, the Crimean War, the American Civil War, and many other historic episodes. Sir Edward Cook's study of Delane as a personal editor of a type now almost extinct outlines for the benefit of the present generation of readers an unfamiliar conception of journalistic responsibility. Delane, in a very real sense, was a maker as well as a writer of history from day to day in the height of the Victorian era. It is almost the irony of fate that the British Censor-in-Chief should have written this life of the one great British editor who consistently refused to be censored.



JOHN T. DELANE  
(Editor of the London  
*Times*, 1841-77)

**A Life of William Shakespeare.** By Sir Sidney Lee. Macmillan. 758 pp. Ill. \$2.

The best life of Shakespeare was published only seventeen years ago. It was written by Sir Sidney Lee, who little thought that before the centenary of Shakespeare's death should arrive so many new facts about the poet's career would be discovered that a thorough, even "drastic," revision of his book would be demanded. Shakespearean research has been busy in these recent years, as this work shows.

**William Rockhill Nelson.** Edited and published by members of the staff of the Kansas City *Star*. 274 pp. Ill.

William R. Nelson, who died last year, was the most representative man of Kansas City, and as owner and editor of the *Star* was one of the foremost leaders of American public opinion. He had made his mark as a young business man and Democratic leader in Indiana, and turned to journalism and to Kansas City in 1880 as the deliberate choices of a man of thirty-five who meant to make a great career through sheer courage, energy, and a sense of personal power. The members of the staff of the Kansas City *Star* have prepared an excellent biography of him as

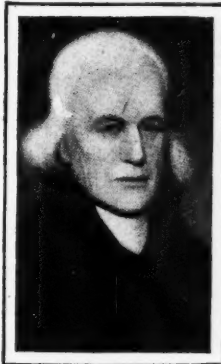
a fitting tribute and memorial. His ample fortune will ultimately provide Kansas City with a museum of art.

**Francis Asbury, the Prophet of the Long Road.** By Ezra Squier Tipple. The Methodist Book Concern. 333 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

A sketch of the first great bishop and prophet of American Methodism. A facsimile reproduction of a letter of John Wesley to Asbury is one of a group of documentary illustrations that add interest to the text. As the country matures and we study its pioneer history, we give ever higher place to the great teachers and leaders who gave America its moral and religious tone. Asbury, as a mere boy, began preaching in England about 1766, and at once came to the United States. He died in 1816. While Dr. Tipple's excellent book will appeal especially to Methodists, it has permanent value as a contribution to the history of American religious life and development.

**A Painter of Dreams.** By Mrs. A. M. W. Stirling. Lane. 365 pp. Ill. \$3.50.

This book, written for the English-reading public and dedicated to William de Morgan, the novelist, has one chapter,—"A Favorite of Destiny,"—that concerns America quite as much as England. It has to do with the Baltimore girls known as the American Graces who won social triumphs in the early years of the nineteenth century in England and on the continent. One of



BISHOP ASBURY

these young women, Elizabeth Patterson, married Jerome Bonaparte. Her sister-in-law, Mary Patterson, became the wife of Lord Wellesley, and Emily, the sister who remained with her parents in Baltimore, married the British consul there, Mr. John A. MacTavish. Mrs. Stirling also refers to Charles Carroll, the famous Maryland Senator and signer of the Declaration of Independence, and to John Frederick Herring, the realist, who was an American by birth.

**Julia Ward Howe.** By Laura E. Richards and Maud Howe Elliott. Houghton, Mifflin. 2 vol. Ill. 826 pp. \$4.

Mrs. Julia Ward Howe's daughters, Mrs. Maude Howe Elliott and Laura E. Richards have made a two-volume record of their mother's life which is wisely autobiographical. After the first chapter, Mrs. Howe tells the story of her life by means of letters, extracts from her writings, and intimate jottings from her diary. It is her purely personal interests, the story of her life as a wife, home-keeper, and mother, the actual tangibility of her presence, that we find embodied in these volumes.

## HISTORICAL WORKS

**A Thousand Years of Russian History.** By Sonia E. Howe. Lippincott. 432 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

The author of this book, a Russian by birth, the wife of an English clergyman, reviews Russian history from the standpoint of popular progress. Although the book was addressed to the British public, because the author believed that great ignorance about Russia prevailed in Great Britain, it is quite as well adapted to meet the needs of American readers. The English of the book is excellent and the illustrations are all derived from authentic Russian sources.

**The Real Story of the Whaler.** By A. Hyatt Verrill. Appleton. 250 pp. Ill. \$2.

The records of a bygone American industry have been ransacked by the author of this book, and the result is the thrilling narrative of old-time Yankee enterprise and daring, with many illustrations of whaling ships in line and half-tone.

**Adventures in Mexico.** By George Frederic Ruxton. Outing Publishing Co. 292 pp. \$1.

A reprint of a narrative of travels through Mexico from Vera Cruz to the northern boundary, at the time of the Mexican War. It is interesting to note the close correspondence between people and conditions as described in 1846 and those of the present day. The author, who was a noted traveler in his time, was held up by bandits, deserted by his guides, nearly captured by Indians, and saw some of the minor incidents of the war with the United States. He seems to have been on some secret mission, in which Great Britain was concerned, although the reader of his book is not enlightened as to the precise object of his quest.

**The Century of the Renaissance in France.** By Louis Batiffol. Putnam. 429 pp. \$2.50.

One of the volumes published in the series appearing in English as "The National History of France," edited by Dr. F. Funck-Brentano. Titles of other volumes to appear in this series are as follows: "The Middle Ages," "The Great Century," "The Eighteenth Century," "The French Revolution," and "The Empire."

**Crises in the History of the Papacy.** By Joseph McCabe. Putnam. 459 pp. \$2.50.

A study of twenty famous popes of a former Catholic priest who left the Church some years ago.

**General Pichegru's Treason.** By Sir John Hall, Bart. Dutton. 363 pp. Ill. \$4.

The story of the French general who in 1795 entered into a conspiracy for the return of Louis XVIII to power, and who has been shown by French historians to have had a part in the plots fomented by the British Government at that time against Bonaparte.

**Spanish Exploration in the Southwest, 1542-1706** Edited by Herbert Eugene Bolton. Scribner. 487 pp. \$3.

This volume is made up of a series of original narratives of explorers, priests, and officials, translated from the Spanish, and accompanied by editorial introductions and notes. These contributions to early American history, under the general editorship of Professor J. Franklin Jameson, are reproduced under the auspices of the American Historical Association. The manner in which this work is performed is distinctly creditable to American historical scholarship, as well as to those who have the details of publication directly in hand.

**Backward Glances.** By Thomas Floyd-Jones. Published by the author. 275 pp. Ill. \$4.

Entertaining reminiscences of old-time New York City sports, including horse racing and the rivalries of the volunteer fire companies, together with descriptions of famous buildings, theaters, etc.

**The Fifteenth Ohio Volunteers and Its Campaigns, 1861-1865.** By Alexis Cope. Columbus, Ohio: Published by the author. 796 pp.

Gen. Alexis Cope, who was a Captain in the Fifteenth Ohio Volunteers and has long served his State in important capacities, has produced a regimental history that is immediately recognized by military authorities as something far more than a mere record, to gratify the descendants of the members of a particular organization. It is an original and remarkably able contribution to the military history of the Civil War, especially in the Southwest, and will have its permanent recognition both in America and in Europe as a work of great authority.

**History of Education in Iowa.** Vol. III. Clarence Ray Aurner, Iowa City, Iowa: Published by the State Historical Society of Iowa.

As a part of the great work carried on by the State Historical Society of Iowa in producing a comprehensive library covering all phases of the State's development, there now appears the third volume in a well-planned "History of Education in Iowa." It deals with secondary schools, and is devoted principally to the public high schools, while also recounting all the voluntary and private efforts at secondary education in the entire history of the State. Mr. Clarence Ray Aurner has prepared this volume. Professor Shambaugh, in his editor's introduction, calls attention to the fact that "the high school in Iowa has developed without legislative direction; it is a product of experience and experiment." The tendency in Iowa is toward flexibility in high-school work, and doubtless the teachers of that State are prepared to discuss and even to apply some of the principles laid down by Dr. Abraham Flexner in his paper on "A Modern School," published in this number of the REVIEW.

## AMERICAN FOREIGN POLICY

**Japan and America.** By Carl Crow. McBride. 316 pp. \$1.50.

**Japanese Expansion and American Policies.** By James Francis Abbott. Macmillan. 261 pp. \$1.50.

Current and rumored movements on foot in China, Japan, and the Far East at large are resulting in the production of many books and articles. Those who take the Chinese side of controversies between China and Japan are showing much more eagerness to seek American readers than are the defenders of Japan. Mr. Carl Crow and Mr. James Francis Abbott are the authors of new books on the relations of Japan and America in view of Japan's ambitions. Both of these men have lived and labored in Japan and write from a standpoint very different from that of the casual traveler who has been courteously entertained and comes home to praise what he has seen. Mr. Crow regards the intentions of Japan as adverse to American interests. Mr. Abbott is not so outspoken in criticism of Japanese policy. Whether one agrees with them or not, both books are worthy of very careful reading, for the reason that it has become necessary for Americans to have some viewpoint as a basis for our future policy in the Pacific. Mr. Abbott's review of Japanese history seems to us to be both illuminating and entirely fair in its explanation of Japan's past relations with China and of Japanese policy in Korea and Manchuria.

**Early Diplomatic Relations Between the United States and Mexico.** By William R. Manning. Johns Hopkins Press. 406 pp.

An understanding of the Mexican questions of our own day will be greatly assisted by a study of Mexican history and diplomacy, especially with reference to the United States. The latest issue in the volumes appearing at Baltimore in the series entitled "The Albert Shaw Lectures on

Diplomatic History," in the Johns Hopkins University, is upon the "Early Diplomatic Relations Between the United States and Mexico." The author is Prof. William R. Manning, of the University of Texas. It deals principally with the period from about 1820 to 1830, and presents in an admirable way the notable diplomatic events of the decade in which the Monroe Doctrine was enunciated. The previous volume in this series was Professor Updyke's, on "The Diplomacy of the War of 1812," which appeared last year and expounds situations remarkable for their similarity to some of those produced by the present war.

**Rights and Duties of Neutrals.** By Daniel Chauncey Brewer. Putnam. 260 pp. \$1.25.

This volume discusses a number of questions that have arisen during the present war, especially the rights of non-combatants on merchant ships, the belligerent use of neutral flags, effectiveness as a requisite of blockade, the British Order in Council of March 1915, the law of contraband, and the problem of aliens and hyphenated citizens in neutral states. The author's conclusion is that non-belligerent nations will never secure their full rights under international law until they are themselves prepared single-handed or in company to fight for the vindication of the principles to which they are committed.

**The Challenge of the Future.** By Roland G. Usher. Houghton Mifflin. 350 pp. \$1.75.

An attempt to formulate an American foreign policy by the author of "Pan-Germanism." This writer is convinced that our continued national isolation is inexpedient and that our present interests can be advanced only by foreign alliance, Great Britain being, in his opinion, the only power with which we can at present ally on favorable terms.

## BOOKS ON NATIONAL DEFENSE

**West Point in Our Next War.** By Maxwell V. Z. Woodhull. Putnam. 266 pp. \$1.25.

General Woodhull, in his book entitled "West Point in Our Next War," very justly shows that the plan of a volunteer army as a means of national defense is hopelessly obsolete. He would have a system of universal training and national service, which would keep 200,000 men as an active army with the colors and have at least 800,000 in a reserve that could be mobilized promptly. Realizing that trained officers are essential, he would greatly enlarge the scope of the military academy and create a cadet corps of 3600. Regardless of exact details, every book of this kind is of great value because it helps to create the conception—grasped everywhere except in the United States and China—that national security nowadays requires efficiency on the part of every young citizen, as well as a

Government capable of understanding the problems that face the nation.

**Self-Help for the Citizen-Soldier.** By Capt. James A. Moss and Capt. B. Stewart, U.S.A. Menasha, Wis.: Banta Pub. Co. 239 pp. Ill. \$1.25.

Something of what military preparedness means to the individual citizen soldier is clearly outlined in this little book, which does not pretend to be a manual of military training, but is intended to serve as a guide by means of which the civilian may inform himself concerning military matters sufficiently to enable him to understand in a general way what will be required of him when he is called upon to learn the soldier's trade for the defense of his country. The authors are both captains in the regular army and are fully conversant with the requirements of efficient military service. General Wood supplies an introduction to the book.

**An Army of the People.** By John McAuley Palmer. Putnam. 158 pp. \$1.

A detailed description of national military system for the United States. The author has chosen to adopt the fiction that Congress has passed a National Defense Act embodying his ideas.

**Submarines: Their Mechanism and Operation.** By Frederick A. Talbot. Lippincott. 274 pp. Ill. \$1.25.

This book is neither a history nor a technical treatise, although it attempts to answer questions which are most frequently asked about the development, the attacking power, the defensive capacity, the mechanism, and the handling of submarines.

**The Story of the Submarine.** By Farnham Bishop. 211 pp. Ill. \$1.

Another book that brings out very clearly the

credit due to the inventive genius of America for the development of the submarine. The pioneer work of David Bushnell, Robert Fulton, Simon Lake, John P. Holland, and others, is described in detail, but in a graphic, non-technical style. The priority of American submarines as demonstrated in Mr. Bishop's book will be a surprise, we imagine, to most readers. The fact, too, that the Confederate "diving-boat" *Hundley* was the only submarine to sink a hostile warship before the outbreak of the present war is of special interest when we consider that a period of fifty years elapsed between the Civil War achievement of 1864 and the German submarine operations of 1914. Mr. Bishop's book is appropriately illustrated and is attractively written throughout.

**Submarine Problems and Torpedo Defense.**

By Joseph A. Steinmetz. Philadelphia: Published by the Author. 96 pp. Ill.

A reprint of articles from technical journals and popular magazines.

## BOOKS RELATING TO THE WAR

**A Frenchman's Thoughts of the War.** By Paul Sabatier. Scribner. 164 pp.

In this little book an eminent French writer interprets the spirituality of his people, in relation to the great conflict. There are chapters on "Religious Union and Revival," "Alsace," and "Public Feeling in France."

**The War Thoughts of an Optimist.** By Benjamin Apthorp Gould. Dutton. 200 pp. \$1.

Mr. Gould, who is an American citizen residing in Canada, discusses in this book the value of American democracy to the world, Canada's loyalty to the British cause, the volunteer armies of the British Empire, and many other topics relating to the war.

**European War. Vol. II. Handbook Series.** Edited by Alfred Bingham. H. W. Wilson Company. 304 pp. \$1.

The second volume of the "Handbook of the European War" contains articles by prominent statesmen, publicists, and economists of the several countries involved. While the first volume dealt largely with the events that led up to the struggle, its successor is concerned more particularly with the effects of the war as reflected by the speeches and writings of statesmen and authors.

**The Diplomacy of the Great War.** By Arthur Bullard. Macmillan. 344 pp. \$1.50.

This is an introductory text-book—as the author calls it, "a first-year course in European diplomacy." It is addressed to those American readers—and most of us are in the category—who have not in the past been especially interested in European diplomacy and have not familiarized themselves with its details. The modest purpose of the author is to help the American reader "to understand the moves on the diplomatic check-board after the war."

**Great Russia.** By Charles Sarolea. New York: Alfred A. Knopf. 252 pp. \$1.25.

Mr. Sarolea is a Belgian who has lived for a dozen years in Great Britain as head of the department of French in the University of Edinburgh and as a Belgian consul. He writes brilliantly and suggestively as a journalist on all international and political topics. His present book on Russia carries praise of that country beyond all limits of judgment or discrimination. It is a part of that flood of literature of "mutual admiration" among the Allies, which present conditions render inevitable. Its best pages form the brief chapter called "The Geographical Foundations of Russian Politics." But even this part, like all the rest, is casual and slight.

**Day by Day with the Russian Army.** By Bernard Pares. Houghton, Mifflin. 287 pp. \$2.50.

The diary of the official British observer with the Russian armies in the field, from the beginning of the war to June 19, 1915. An appendix contains the diary of an Austrian officer during the Austro-German re-conquest of Galicia.

**Roadside Glimpses of the Great War.** By Arthur Sweetser. Macmillan. 272 pp. Ill. \$1.25.

The story of a bicycle journey from the Belgian border to Paris, relating many exciting experiences on the road.

**The First Hundred Thousand.** By The Junior Sub (Captain Ian Hay Beith). Houghton Mifflin. 342 pp. \$1.50.

This is an account of the experiences of some of the first hundred thousand of Kitchener's army. It is written by Captain Ian Hay Beith, the author of "The Right Stuff," "A Man's a Man," and other popular novels. The story was originally contributed in the form of an anonymous narrative to *Blackwood's Magazine*.



**Socialism and War.** By Louis B. Boudin. New Review Publishing Association. 267 pp. \$1.

An interpretation of the great war from the Socialist viewpoint, together with a discussion of the general problems of Socialism and War, Nationalism and Internationalism.

**Italy and the Unholy Alliance.** By W. O. Pitt. Dutton. 224 pp. \$1.

The story of Italy's century-long quarrel with Austria, related for the purpose of showing its bearing on the attitude taken by Italy in the great war.

**The Blackest Page of Modern History.** Armenian Events of 1915. By Herbert Adams Gibbons, Ph.D. 71 pp. 75 cents.

An account of the Armenian massacres in Turkey, suggesting in conclusion the question whether neutral nations have any responsibility in regard to the Armenians.

**Towards a Lasting Settlement.** Edited by Charles Roden Buxton. Macmillan. 216 pp. \$1.

Discussions by eminent English writers of the problems of nationality and territorial re-ar-

rangement, the revision of maritime law, and of a general international guarantee against war. Among the contributors to the book are G. Lowes Dickinson, J. A. Hobson, and Vernon Lee.

**The War Plotters of Wall Street.** By Charles A. Collman. The Fatherland Corporation. 140 pp. Ill.

A pro-German statement of American operations in war finance.

**The Way They Have in the Army.** By Thomas O'Toole. Lane. 263 pp. \$1.

A handbook of information, formal and informal, about the daily life and duties of the British soldier. "The New Recruit," "Officers' Badges of Rank," "The Commanding Officer," "Tommy's Grub," "The Soldier's Wife," and "Non-commissioned Officers," are among the chapter-titles.

**Joffre Chaps.** By Pierre Mille. Lane. 215 pp. \$ .50.

In this little book several entertaining stories of the war have been translated from the French. These stories concern not only the French soldier, but the German prisoner of war and various types of French civilians.

## FRANCE IN THE WAR

THE spirit that animates France to-day, the courage of her soldiers, the devotion and self-sacrifice of her people, Anatole France has spread before us in his last book, "The Path of Glory."<sup>1</sup> The volume contains a eulogy of King Albert, articles and letters written by the author since the beginning of the war, a dramatic fragment, "After Herodotus," that purports to be a conversation between Xerxes and Demaratus; an invocation to America, and a tribute from the pen of Monsieur Edouard Champion to Jean-Pierre Barbier, in whose memory this book is published. Those who have been more or less familiar with the literary style of Anatole France will be surprised at the utter simplicity and pathos of his words in this book. At last this gifted writer has laid aside all the cunning of literary devices and the subtlety of his imagination to voice the very soul of the French nation in its loyalty to "liberty, fraternity, and equality." In "Christmas, 1914," he invokes the "sacred fire" to succor old and young, the happy children, the toiling mothers, the men at home, and more than all, those who are exposed to the danger of battle. He writes:

*"O fire, sacred fire, go through the cold, dark night, bear to our soldiers in the trenches thy comfortable warmth and sparkle joyously in their hearts."*

<sup>1</sup> The Path of Glory. By Anatole France. John Lane. 158 pp. \$1.50.

He encourages the French soldier with this statement: "One great superiority you have over the enemy. Citizens of a Free Nation, you derive your military virtues from your own free spirit, and it is not by order that you are brave."

In one article, "A Little Town in France," he makes the town speak to the Frenchman who gazes down upon it:

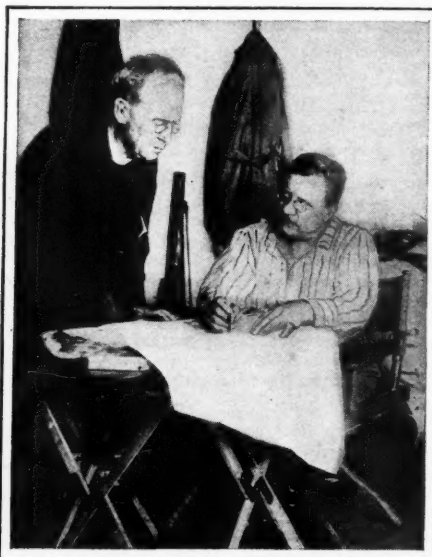
"See, I am old, but I am comely; my pious sons have brodered my robe with towers and steeples, fretted gables and belfries. I am a good mother; I teach honest work and all the arts of peace, I exhort the citizens to that scorn of danger which makes them invincible. I nurse my children in my arms. Then their task done, they go one after another, to sleep at my feet, under the grass where the sheep browse. They pass, but I remain to guard their memory. I am their consciousness. That is why they owe everything to me, for man is only man inasmuch as he has conscious memory. My mantle has been torn and my bosom pierced in the wars. I have received wounds men said were mortal. I have lived because I have hoped. Learn of me the blessed hope that is the salvation of our country."



JEAN-PIERRE BARBIER  
(In whose memory "The Path of Glory" is published)

Jean-Pierre Barbier was a young French author who was just beginning military service when war was declared. He was only twenty, but he had written several small volumes which revealed unusual talent. He was killed in battle on December 26, 1914.

## BOOKS OF TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION



DR. ZAHM, AUTHOR OF "THROUGH SOUTH AMERICA'S SOUTHLAND," WITH COLONEL ROOSEVELT IN BRAZIL

**Through South America's Southland.** By J. A. Zahm. Appleton. 526 pp. Ill. \$3.50.

Dr. Zahm has long been known as one of the best informed of American writers on South American subjects. Even before the Roosevelt scientific expedition of 1913 was undertaken, Dr. Zahm had brought out two books (published under the pseudonym of H. J. Mozans) entitled, respectively, "Up the Orinoco and Down the Magdalena," and "Along the Andes and Down the Amazon." The present work completes the trilogy, and gives an account of the Roosevelt expedition, which Dr. Zahm had an important part in organizing and equipping. The book takes its plan from the itinerary of that expedition. Dwelling on the history, the romance, and the present-day status of Brazil, the Argentine, Chile, Paraguay, and Uruguay, it is a vivid picture of the "A-B-C" countries brought well up to date, and including just the detail that is calculated to interest Americans, particularly at the present time. Dr. Zahm's literary style is all that could be desired, and he has exercised especial care and skill in the selection of the illustrations, which surpass those of any account of South American travel that has recently come to our notice, with the exception of Colonel Roosevelt's own work, "Through the Brazilian Wilderness."

**Bolivia: Its People and Its Resources, Its Railways, Mines, and Rubber-Forests.** By Paul Walle. Scribner. 407 pp. Ill. \$3

One of the important, although comparatively inaccessible, South American countries, from an

industrial standpoint, is described in this volume. The author served as commissioner for the French Ministry of Commerce. There are sixty-two illustrations and four maps. The new route to Bolivia by way of the Panama Canal is featured.

**The Columbia, America's Great Highway.** By Samuel Christopher Lancaster. Portland, Ore.: Kilham Press. 140 pp. Ill. \$3.50.

This is far more than an ordinary travel souvenir. The author is the consulting engineer who planned this famous road eastward from Portland. Having himself admired and appreciated the scenic beauties and wonders along the line of this road, Mr. Lancaster has displayed excellent taste in the choice of illustrations, many of which are full-page plates reproduced by the four-color process.

**On Alpine Heights and British Crags.** By George D. Abraham. Houghton, Mifflin. 302 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

This volume might be described as a manual of mountain-climbing, a sport that is said to have been greatly on the increase just prior to the outbreak of the great war in Europe. The Dolomites (the Swiss Alps) and the Welsh mountains are the peaks on which the author had his adventures in rock-climbing.

**A City of the Dawn.** By Robert Keable. Dutton. 244 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

A description of certain regions of East Africa, from the standpoint of Roman Catholic missions.

**The Harim and the Purdah.** By Elizabeth Cooper. Century. 309 pp. Ill. \$3.00.

A Western woman's unbiased study of the social life, customs, and mental attitudes of her sisters in the Orient. Mrs. Cooper is not disposed to condemn indiscriminately the traditional Eastern attitude towards women. She rather accepts it for what it is, and finds in it some mitigations that Western travelers have not always been able to recognize. She does, however, fully realize the meaning of the transition stage from old to new that has now been reached in most regions of the Orient. Types of Eastern women and varied scenes of Oriental life are reproduced in the illustrations, which are exceptionally good.



MRS. ELIZABETH COOPER  
(Author of "The Harim and the Purdah")

## NOVELS AND SHORT STORIES

**B**OOTH TARKINGTON, who found an exceedingly happy vein in the popular "Penrod" stories, has been not less fortunate in his last work, "Seventeen: A Tale of Youth and Summer Time and the Baxter Family, Especially William." The hero of the "Penrod" stories was a little boy; the hero of this book is quite a big boy, William Sylvanus Baxter, seventeen years old. He is just at the age when the minor considerations of living assume undue importance, when a boy's soul is unduly sensitive, and when his intelligence peers over the dim threshold of life into the great outside world of action, half frightened at its own daring. The book is deliciously whimsical, clever, and filled with innocent fun, but there is an under-current of seriousness that will make every father and mother who reads it more tender toward the boy in his teens, and more intelligent as regards the psychology of those years when a boy has not yet found himself. "Seventeen cannot always manage the little boy yet alive under all the coverings," Mr. Tarkington writes. As sidelights, we have marvelous peeps into middle-class family life. The twelve fine illustrations are the work of Arthur William Brown, who has admirably characterized the novelist's creations.

Gertrude Atherton has turned her fine craftsmanship to the production of a fascinating mystery story, "Mrs. Balfame."<sup>2</sup> She has presented the psychology of the various characters that surround a modern murder mystery, in which the evidence clearly shows that a cultured society woman planned to murder her husband; and turned all the power and fascination of her mature literary art upon the story of the unraveling of the crime. And Mrs. Atherton has, it seems, a certain end in view in writing this new kind of an Atherton novel: she wishes to show that many so-called criminals are usually just commonplace people trying to do the "right thing" who, for the period of their evil deeds, come under the breaking stress of brief aberration—"release under stress of those anti-social instincts that are deep in every mortal and are exhibited by every child that ever lived." The solution of the story cannot be guessed beforehand by the reader; it is unexpected and remarkable.



MRS. GERTRUDE  
ATHERTON

"Twilight,"<sup>3</sup> by Frank Danby, is one of the best

<sup>1</sup> Seventeen—A Tale of Youth and Summer Time and the Baxter Family, Especially William. By Booth Tarkington. Harper. Ill. 329 pp. \$1.35.

<sup>2</sup> Mrs. Balfame. By Gertrude Atherton. Stokes. 335 pp. \$1.35.

<sup>3</sup> Twilight. By Frank Danby. Dodd, Mead. 369 pp. \$1.35.

novels offered this year. Not perhaps since Henry James gave us the inimitable "Daisy Miller," has modern fiction presented the character of a woman so sensitive, so innately innocent in her faults and weaknesses, so inevitably tragic in her fate, as the heroine of this book, Margaret Capel. The story develops in this fashion: A talented woman writer, who is ill and under the influence of morphia, goes to a nursing home where a gifted girl has lived and died. For a year she lives in this home attended by the same physician who had treated the girl. In the "twilight" world, under the influence of drugs, she sees the phantom of the girl, and with the aid of a packet of letters and the confession of the physician, reconstructs the strange, tragic romance of Margaret Capel and her lover, Gabriel Stanton. It is the finest thing Frank Danby has done by all odds. In private life the author is Mrs. Julia Frankau. She has three sons fighting in the British army at the present time.

"Nicky-Nan,"<sup>4</sup> otherwise Nicky Nanjulian, a middle-aged Cornish bachelor, is the leading character of a most amusing book by Sir A. T. Quiller-Couch. Nicky-Nan is on the reserve list, although he is not entitled to be, and by juggling the doctor's certificate he manages to go on drawing a pension. When the war breaks out his troubles begin, and his mis-adventures make up a thoroughly amusing story, typically Cornish in atmosphere.

May Sinclair's "The Belfry"<sup>5</sup> is a fine novel written in sprightly, journalistic style. The events lead up to the scenes of the great war. The "Belfry" is the one at Bruges in Belgium.

"Emmeline,"<sup>6</sup> a timely, appealing story of Gettysburg, by Elsie Singmaster, tells of the adventures of a little girl who was sent out of the town of Gettysburg to her grandfather's farm just before the famous battle. The farm proved to be situated near the conflict; her grandparents had gone, and little Emmeline stays in the farmhouse for three days making biscuits for wounded Confederates and helping "Private Christy" dress their wounds. Emmeline learns that the "enemies of her country" are good men after all; she comes to like them and understand that humanity is the same in both friend and foe.

"Those About Trench,"<sup>7</sup> by Edwin Herbert Lewis, is an unusual novel of American life that is decidedly brilliant in spots. It is the story of Dr. Isham Trench, of Halsted Street, Chicago, and of various human beings whose influence had part in shaping his life and opinions. Lovers, strange Orientals, odd Americans, factory girls, are thrown together in a jumble that nearly strangles the story, but nevertheless the book is interesting and gives promise by its strong, vivid style.

<sup>4</sup> Nicky-Nan, Reservist. By Sir A. T. Quiller-Couch. Appletons. 317 pp. \$1.35.

<sup>5</sup> The Belfry. By May Sinclair. Macmillan. 332 pp. \$1.35.

<sup>6</sup> Emmeline. By Elsie Singmaster. Houghton, Mifflin. 155 pp. \$1.

<sup>7</sup> Those About Trench. By Edwin Herbert Lewis. Macmillan. 326 pp. \$1.35.

## POETRY

"**HIGH TIDE**,"<sup>1</sup> a collection of the poems that everybody loves, has been arranged and edited by Mrs. Waldo Richards. The author's sub-title explains her choices of poems: "Songs of Joy and Vision from the Present-day Poets of America and Great Britain." Mrs. Richards believes that poetry must be helpful; it must come close to our hearts and leave with us the gift of enthusiasm and renewed inspiration. The volume is bound attractively in cloth and in limp leather.

We hear very little about the woman-poets of India, but there are many, chief among them the talented Sarojini Naidu, who writes in English. Her latest collection, "The Bird of Time, Songs of Life, Death and the Spring,"<sup>2</sup> is published with an introduction by Edmund Gosse, and a portrait of the author. Mr. Gosse writes that while Sarojini Naidu's early poetry was largely an echo of the great English bards, her mature work "springs from the very soil of India; her spirit, although it employs the English language as its vehicle, has no other tie with the West." Her folk-songs are rarely beautiful and her serious poems reveal a burning fervency that is fixed upon the pursuit of the Eternal. In her "Salutation to the Eternal Peace," she turns away from the clamor of the world to the wonders of God's manifestation of eternal peace in the soul, and the spiritual universe:



SAROJINI NAIDU,  
A WOMAN POET OF INDIA  
WHO WRITES IN ENGLISH

**SALUTATION TO ETERNAL PEACE**  
Men say the world is full of fear and hate,  
And all life's ripening harvest-fields await  
The restless sickle of relentless fate.

But I, sweet Soul, rejoice that I was born,  
When from the climbing terraces of corn  
I watch the golden orioles of Thy morn.

What care I for the world's desire and pride,  
Who know the silver wings that gleam and glide,  
The homing pigeons of Thine eventide?

What care I for the world's loud weariness  
Who dream in twilight granaries Thou dost bless  
With delicate sheaves of mellow silences?

Say, shall I heed dull presages of doom,  
Or dread the rumoured loneliness and gloom,  
The mute and mythic terror of the tomb?

For my glad heart is drunk and drenched with  
Thee,  
O, inmost wine of living ecstasy,  
O, intimate essence of eternity.

Introduced by Mr. Horace Holley, a second edition of Katherine Howard's "Eve"<sup>3</sup> comes to us with the stamp of approval from many critics. "Eve" is Woman, who long ago has eaten of the fruit of the Tree of Knowledge of Good and Evil, and who hears the voice of the "Inscrutable One" calling her to realize that she is indeed the Tree of Life Everlasting, that upon her devolve the fates of men and races. Therefore she is besought to gird herself with purity, to make choice the strains that she shall bear, in order consciously to evolve the new humanity that shall cleanse the world from sin and error. Mr. Holley writes that Mrs. Howard's poetry is "seized from the arterial experience of the race," and "glows with the reflection of an inner flame."

## ESSAYS AND CRITICISM

**NELLIE M'CLUNG**, one of the foremost champions of the cause of women in Canada, dedicates her new book, "In Times Like These,"<sup>4</sup> first to the "superior persons," who are inhospitable to new ideas, and then re-dedicates it to men and women who love a fair deal and are willing to give it to women. It is a "suffrage" book, entertaining, witty, well-reasoned, and full of common-sense.

"Father Payne,"<sup>5</sup> a most entertaining and helpful book, comes to us labeled "A. C. Benson?"; but no one familiar with the limpidity of Arthur Christopher Benson's style could mistake the

authorship. "Father Payne" was a layman who had a little money and an old house in Norfolk and maintained there a brotherhood of men who were trying to learn to write. His advices to his friend-pupils form little essays on various literary matters. There are fervent appreciations of the universe and mankind, sermons of loving kindness, and admonitions of practical ways and means to literary success.

"Escape and Other Essays,"<sup>6</sup> by A. C. Benson, consists of meditations and impressions written before the war. Walt Whitman and "The New Poet" are among the subjects of his facile pen.

"More Jonathan Papers,"<sup>7</sup> by the philosopher-essayist, Elisabeth Woodbridge, is one of the books that put happiness into life. The "Papers"

<sup>1</sup> High Tide. Edited by Mrs. Waldo Richards. Houghton, Mifflin. Cloth, \$1.25; limp leather, \$1.75.

<sup>2</sup> The Bird of Time. By Sarojini Naidu. John Lane. 103 pp. \$1.

<sup>3</sup> Eve. By Katherine Howard. Sherman, French. 49 pp. \$1.

<sup>4</sup> In Times Like These. By Nellie McClung. Appletons. 218 pp. \$1.

<sup>5</sup> Father Payne. By A. C. Benson. Putnam. 422 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>6</sup> Escape and Other Essays. By A. C. Benson. Century. 302 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>7</sup> More Jonathan Papers. By Elisabeth Woodbridge. Houghton, Mifflin. 216 pp. \$1.25.



are sparkling essays on out-of-door life. All the pleasant labors and distractions of life in the real country, the spell of woodland and meadow, gardens, sugar-camps, and trout streams are woven in a light-hearted fashion into these charming papers.

Four essays that in different ways amplify one theme—the moral utilization of our intelligence to render our loyalties more sensible and noble—are gathered in one volume by their author, John Erskine (Associate Professor of English at Columbia University), under the title, "The Moral Obligations To Be Intelligent."<sup>1</sup> They show us that it is useless for us to continue to develop our intelligence unless it proceeds to high vision wherein the "gods will walk with us." A helpful and stimulating book.

"John Wesley's Place in History,"<sup>2</sup> an address delivered by Woodrow Wilson at Wesleyan University on the occasion of the Wesley Bicentennial, presents a sympathetic character study. It is highly interesting aside from historical and literary values, as a bit of perspective on Mr. Wilson's feeling for a certain kind of executive efficiency. He admires Wesley's spiritual statesmanship, the enormous development of his will. He writes: "All that was executive and fit for mastery in the discipline of belief seemed to come to perfection in him. He dealt with the spirits of other men with the unerring capacity of a man of affairs—a sort of spiritual statesman, a politician of God, speaking the policy of a kingdom unseen, but real and destined to prevail over all kingdoms else."

"True Ghost Stories,"<sup>3</sup> by Hereward Carrington,

deals first with the question, "What is a ghost?" and then discusses phantasms, haunted houses, ghost stories of a dramatic order, historical ghosts, and the phantom armies seen in France. The stories are founded on incidents that have been thoroughly investigated and possess more than usual interest.

Five books that the student of literature will find exceedingly useful and of great interest are: "The Rise of English Literary Prose," by George Philip Krapp (Columbia University Press); "Incense and Iconoclasm," by Charles Leonard Moore (Putnam); "Reticence in Literature and Other Papers," by Arthur Waugh (Dutton); "Methods and Aims in the Study of Literature," by Lane Cooper (Ginn); and "Carlyle: How to Know Him," by Bliss Perry (Bobbs, Merrill).

Maude Morrison Frank has swept all the charm of fledgling genius into a generously illustrated volume, "Great Authors in Their Youth."<sup>4</sup> The book gives a most sympathetic account of the youth of Scott, Stevenson, Thackeray, Dickens, Tennyson, Elizabeth Barrett Browning, Lamb, Charlotte Brontë, Jane Austen, and Ruskin. An excellent book for young people.

Frederick Rowland Marvin, poet, essayist and scholar, publishes "Fireside Papers,"<sup>5</sup> a group of essays. The best of these, and the most comprehensive, are those entitled, respectively, "Human Derelicts" and "Minor Poets." Into the latter the author has gathered—with memories of their song—the circle of minor poets who have come close to our hearts with their minstrelsy, but who have failed to win the bays of greatness.

## ECONOMICS, SOCIOLOGY, CIVICS

**Land Credits.** By Dick T. Morgan. Crowell. 299 pp. \$1.50.

Congressman Morgan, of Oklahoma, has recently written a very keen and discriminating book on the subject of land credits for American farmers. He argues in favor of the kind of legislation that will produce uniform conditions throughout the country, as against rural credit bills that would subject farmers to money-lenders on a basis of local interest rates. As a result of the work of men like Mr. Morgan, the bills now pending are greatly improved over those of last year that Mr. Morgan's book analyzes and condemns.

**Principles of Labor Legislation.** By John R. Commons, LL.D., and John B. Andrews, Ph.D. Harper. 524 pp. \$2

Labor legislation is no longer a matter of merely academic interest in this country. Workmen's compensation, social insurance, and regu-

lation of the hours of labor have become vital issues in many of the States, and there is a demand for some authoritative statement of the principles on which such legislation is to be based. In the present volume Messrs. Commons and Andrews treat the subject from the standpoint of the student and citizen. Professor Commons has for many years given special attention to the administration of labor laws in the State of Wisconsin. His familiarity with the details of administration makes all the more valuable the conclusions that he has reached regarding the principles of labor laws in general. Although these details are not set forth elaborately in the present work, the author's grasp of them and his sure knowledge of the limitations of all legislative effort in this direction tend to enhance the reader's confidence in the soundness of the principles that he enunciates.

**Law and Order in Industry.** By Julius Henry Cohen. Macmillan. 292 pp. \$1.50.

This book relates five years' experience with "the Protocol," so called, an arrangement by which peace has been maintained between the employers and employees in the garment trades of New York City. The author was closely identified with the Protocol from its inception, and is able to give a vivid picture of its work-

<sup>1</sup> The Moral Obligation To Be Intelligent. By John Erskine. Duffield. 167 pp. \$1.

<sup>2</sup> John Wesley's Place in History. By Woodrow Wilson. The Abingdon Press. 48 pp. 50 cents.

<sup>3</sup> True Ghost Stories. By Hereward Carrington. J. S. Ogilvie. 250 pp. 75 cents.

<sup>4</sup> Great Authors in Their Youth. By Maude M. Frank. Holt. 324 pp. Ill. \$1.25.

<sup>5</sup> Fireside Papers. By Frederic Rowland Marvin. Sherman, French. 357 pp. \$1.50.

ings in reconciling clashing interests. The experience of the New York clothing trades is not without its suggestions to other organizations of employers and employed.

#### Selected Readings in Rural Economics.

Compiled by Thomas Nixon Carver, Ph.D. Ginn. 974 pp. \$2.80.

Material that was originally published in widely scattered places, and hence has heretofore been more or less inconvenient of access, is here brought together in a single volume of less than one thousand pages. Considerable space has been given to historical matter, all of which, however, has a direct bearing on present-day conditions and problems in agriculture. Such topics as "Farm Credits," "Rural Marketing," "Agricultural Labor," "Tenancy and Ownership," are represented by excellent articles.

**Railroad Valuation and Rates.** By Mark Wymond. Chicago: Wymond & Clark. 344 pp. \$1.50.

This book is intended primarily as a treatise on the principles of rates and their relation to valuation and rate regulation. The author introduces his discussion by chapters on promotion, construction, and capitalization of railroads. The author, as an engineer in the service of railroad corporations, has had thirty years' experience in connection with financing or investigating railroads in the interest of banking institutions, and in dealing with other aspects of the transportation problem.

**Holders of Railroad Bonds and Notes.** By Louis Heft. Dutton. 419 pp. \$2.

A useful compendium of information regarding the rights of security holders in reorganizations, consolidations, receiverships, foreclosures, and other proceedings.

**Civics for New Americans.** By Mabel Hill and Philip Davis. Houghton, Mifflin. 178 pp. Ill. 80 cents.

It would be desirable if a copy of "Civics for New Americans," by Mabel Hill and Philip Davis, could be presented to all immigrants who have learned to read English, and placed in the hands of everyone who desires to teach good citizenship. It is a valuable handbook, published to the end of developing "better standards of living and a clearer understanding of the opportunities of democracy and the higher ideals of citizenship. It is arranged in the form of lessons, with lists of questions. The appendix contains "A Final Word to New Americans," information as to how to become a citizen of the United States and other useful matters.

**America's Coming-of-Age.** By Van Wyck Brooks. B. W. Huebsch. 183 pp. \$1.

A brilliant, freshly phrased discussion of American life. The author divides the material into two so-called trunk lines—the pursuit and

analysis of Mr. Highbrow, his aims and intentions and the national life produced by his type of mind, and the minute dissection of Mr. Lowbrow and the probable manner of life his ideals shall bring forth. Puritanism, Transcendentalism, Opportunism, Culture, Poets; Emerson, Jonathan Edwards, Benjamin Franklin, and William J. Bryan serve in turn to point the author's theories. He calls attention to the view of American life as a whole—"a vast Sargasso sea—a prodigious welter of unconscious life, swept by ground swells of half-conscious emotion." He writes that American society is "filled with groups which do not stand for living issues. . . . The most striking American spectacle to-day is a fumbling about after new issues which no one has yet been able to throw into relief."

**Socialism in America.** By John Macy. Doubleday, Page. 238 pp. \$1.

Mr. Macy assumes that we can best estimate the strength of the socialistic movement in its present state of confusion, when it is caught unawares and stripped of padding and non-essentials; that in the moment of its seeming failure we can safely estimate its strength and weakness. This book is readable because the author does not obtrude propaganda into his exposition of the status of Socialism in this country. The chapters discuss: "Socialists and the War," "Economic Classes," "Some American History," "The Socialist Party and Its Program," "Trade Unions," "The Industrial Workers of the World," "Internationalism and Militarism," and "Production and Property." Mr. Macy wishes us to see the inter-relationships between the various groups that compose the party, their opinions and points of difference. Also that we should look out into the world and see the working of socialistic thought in every department of human activity, rather than the confusion caused by the present political ferment of the Socialist party.

**City Planning.** Edited by John Nolen. Appletons. 447 pp. Ill. \$2.

There have been many books in recent years devoted either in a descriptive way or from the more technical standpoint to the better planning of our cities and towns. It was something of an achievement, twenty years or more ago, when American city officials, social reformers, engineers and architects were made to entertain the conception that cities were permanent entities which were the result of modern conditions of transportation and industry, and that the life of people in cities could be made healthful, safe and agreeable by improving all kinds of appointments and services, and by providing in a proper way for future growth through a good street system, parks, public buildings, and the various common services. The most practical and helpful of the books that have been appearing is a new one in the National Municipal League series, edited by Mr. John Nolen, the well-known landscape architect, and written by a number of experts in the fields of landscape art, of architecture, and of engineering.

## BOOKS OF REFERENCE

**A-B-C of Vegetable Gardening.** By Eben E. Rexford. 116 pp. 50c.

A manual for beginners prepared by a veteran in the field.

**Our Early Wild Flowers.** By Harriet L. Keeler. Scribner. 249 pp. Ill. \$1.

A study of the herbaceous plants that bloom in early spring in the region roughly defined as extending between the parallels 40° and 50° north latitude and westward from the Atlantic Coast to the Mississippi Valley up to about the 95th meridian. Thus a very large proportion of population in the United States will find virtually all the early wild flowers of their neighborhood listed in this little book, which contains also excellent illustrations of the leading species.

**Who's Who.** Macmillan. 2452 pp. \$4.

"Who's Who," of London and New York, has become an indispensable dictionary of contemporary biography. The issue for 1916 contains more than twenty thousand sketches of living men and women, and in the list are included Americans and persons of eminence in Europe. This work has the advantage (which is a very real one in any book of reference) of annual revision.

**The American Whitaker Almanac and Encyclopedia, 1916.** Macmillan. 552 pp. Ill. \$1.

This edition, especially prepared for circula-

tion in the United States, summarizes facts concerning the trade, production, population, government, and general statistics of every State in the Union. Besides a special section relating the history of the great war to date, and a chapter on the relations of the United States with the belligerent powers, there are statistical summaries for all the principal countries of the world, together with much general information.

**Why We Punctuate.** By William L. Klein. The Lancet Publishing Company. 224 pp. \$1.25.

"Why We Punctuate," or "Reason Versus Rule in the Use of Marks," by William Livingston Klein, has been entirely rewritten for the second edition. In 1896, when the first edition was issued, the REVIEW OF REVIEWS stated that Mr. Klein's manual presented the best American usage of the day. The same praise is due the new edition, together with admiration for the author's new mode of treatment and his well-reasoned discussions. He considers all the various marks together, instead of one at a time, and shows us that the study of punctuation is in reality the study of language, since the position of punctuation marks is determined by the sense-relationship between words, and by the consequent grouping. Once this is made plain, the student automatically determines the proper punctuation and avoids the inconsistencies of an arbitrary system. This book is exceedingly valuable to every student of language and will receive instant appreciation.

## PHYSICAL TRAINING FOR CHILDREN AND YOUTH

**Ideas for Boys.** By Walter W. Ross. Chicago: Tucker-Kenworthy Co. 219 pp.

Chapters of advice to boys from a grown-up who felt the lack of a father's guidance during the formative years of his life.

**How to Get Strong.** By William Blaikie. Harper. 293 pp. Ill. \$1.

Two generations of Americans have read and profited from this book. For boys and girls growing up in our great cities, Mr. Blaikie has a special message. The greater portion of it is as helpful and stimulating as when it was written.

**Keeping Physically Fit.** By William J. Cromie. Macmillan. 146 pp. Ill. \$1.

Exercises for every member of the family described and pictured.

**Keeping in Condition.** By Harry H. Moore. Macmillan. 137 pp. Ill. 75 cents.

This is a concise hand-book on training for boys between the ages of fourteen and eighteen. It is not merely a manual of physical exercise, although it gives many valuable hygienic suggestions, but it aims to present to boys an ideal of manhood and show how the proper training of

their bodies has a direct relation to the welfare of the race.

**Child Study and Child Training.** By William Byron Forbush. Scribner. 320 pp. \$1.

This book is intended to serve as something more than a mere school text-book. It may be used as a practical manual for parents, and contains much material that may be employed to advantage by all who have to do with children.

**The Child; His Nature and Nurture.** By W. B. Drummond. Dutton. 223 pp. Ill. \$1.

An introduction to the study of the physical and mental development of the child. This work, written by a Scottish physician, is now in its seventh edition. There are two new chapters: "Children Who Never Grow Up," and "The Montessori Method."

**Being Well-Born.** By Michael F. Guyer. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill. 374 pp. Ill. \$1.

This volume in the "Childhood and Youth Series" gives a popular exposition of the latest pronouncements of science on the vexed question of heredity. Professor Guyer takes occasion to dispel some of the illusions that have persisted regarding this subject.

# FINANCIAL NEWS

## 1.—SHORT-TERM SECURITIES

THE popularity of "short-term" securities, so-called, has never been greater than it is to-day. Difficulty now is to obtain them at prices giving a satisfactory yield to the private or institutional buyer. So carefully have they been gathered in and so closely held by the buyers that an order for a few hundred thousand dollars' worth of the old established issues can only be filled after much investigation and long bartering.

The two elements of short-term securities appealing to the investor are their ready convertibility into cash on quick notice and the evenness of their price which the quality of semi-demand paper gives them. Formerly "short-term notes" were exclusively those notes maturing within a year or two, but to-day maturities of 1920 to 1925 are also included in the term. Probably the most popular maturity is that of 1921. That is not too long a time to cover in a judgment of banking and industrial prospects. A bank wishing to take immediate advantage of a broader demand for commercial paper and unwilling to run any risk of selling below its cost price would prefer shorter maturities even, say twelve to eighteen months.

### RAILROAD NOTES: A BAD PRACTISE

The supply of "short-term" notes has, in the past, been largely created by the railroads. Unable by reason of many closed mortgages and unwillingness of bankers to underwrite or of the public to buy junior mortgages except at a rate of interest prohibitive to the borrower, to finance on a permanent basis, the transportation companies adopted the vicious policy of selling notes, most of which matured in two to five years. With the proceeds of the notes they bought equipment, added to the general physical plant, and then paid off other maturing obligations. In the five years from 1910 to 1915 hundreds of millions of new money were raised in this way and thousands of investors in this country and in Europe become holders of corporation promises to pay.

With long-term bonds falling almost constantly from 1910 to the autumn of 1915, notes as they matured had to be renewed,

usually at a rising rate of interest. When holders would not renew there came receiverships. These were precipitated in the case of the St. Louis & San Francisco, Missouri, Kansas & Texas, and Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific by holders of notes. Holders of Boston & Maine, and Minneapolis & St. Louis railroads repeatedly extended their notes at a rising cost to both companies, rather than bring on bankruptcy. The vicious element of the short-term note has been that it matured either at some critical political juncture in the country's affairs, or when earnings were poor and not conducive to improving credit, or when the money market was against the issue of any form of security at any price. When one considers that as much as \$400,000,000 notes have been maturing in one year alone, with the New York Central itself, in 1915, having to take care of \$100,000,000, some idea of the size of this proposition is obtained. For years to come many corporations will be paying interest charges on junior securities that were sold to refund notes which themselves never should have been issued on the basis demanded.

The writer believes that the day of such financing is behind us and that when the remaining railroad notes are taken up none will be sold in the future except in rare cases. This statement does not refer to short-term financing, such as equipment notes, which are quite different in their security and position, and, in fact, one of the most desirable forms of investment in existence.

The railroad note just described was in most instances secured by collateral, frequently the treasury stocks or unissued bonds of the companies or their subsidiaries. Obviously, as the credit of the issuers of the notes declined, so did the value of the collateral depreciate, and it was necessary at times to "sweeten" the issue by increasing the collateral. In more than one case the market value of collateral, if it had been possible to liquidate, which it was not, sank well below the par of the notes outstanding. The danger of such a condition must be apparent to everyone.



## ADVANTAGES OF EQUIPMENT NOTES

Now a railroad equipment note is an entirely different obligation. It is directly secured by the equipment purchased from the proceeds of sale. Next to its rails the most indispensable part of a transportation system is its cars and locomotives. The owner of an equipment note, therefore, possesses a part of the organism of the property and one that will be studiously protected against any sort of violation.

Supposing the A., B. & C. Railroad needs 1000 coal cars to satisfy the mine operators who use its service. These cars cost roughly \$1000 each. The total outlay, therefore, is \$1,000,000. The company does not wish to use current funds or to pay for the equipment from proceeds of long-term bonds, for cars wear out quickly, become old-fashioned, and accounting rules demand that a depreciation fund be set up against them.

## A DESIRABLE FORM OF INVESTMENT

The process of financing is, therefore, as follows: From 10 to 20 per cent. of the cost of the cars is paid in cash to the manufacturer. At once there is established a note-buyers' equity. Then serial notes are issued maturing semi-annually in fixed amounts, for a period of years. In the case cited, we will say that cash paid in was 20 per cent., or \$200,000. This would leave a debt of \$800,000 to be considered. Say payment is required in twelve years. This is the estimated period of fairly efficient life of a car. It may last, with good luck, for fifteen or twenty years. So twice a year, in January and July, or May and November, the railroad obligates itself to retire \$33,000 of notes. When one buys such notes one first decides on the series one wants, possibly that of July, 1918, when one has need of ready funds, or January, 1920. The price of these series varies a fraction according as the yield is regulated by early or late maturities of the notes.

Roads with good credit are now selling their notes bearing 4 to 4½ per cent. interest on a basis of 4.25 to 4.40 per cent. yield. Of twenty-five issues now actively quoted none is above a 4¼ per cent. basis. A year ago the situation was quite different. Then

as high as 5¼ per cent. was demanded and Canadian systems of normally high credit had to borrow on a 5½ per cent. basis. While equipment issues have all been equalized by rising prices of long-term bonds and easy money rates, their own market has been peculiarly benefited by the small addition to supplies, the railroads buying less equipment in the past two years than ever, and by the desire of national banks especially to have quickly marketable securities of the very best type in their portfolios.

There have been almost no instances of default on equipment issues. Should default occur and the note-holder take his security, in this case cars and engines, the railroad would be greatly embarrassed. Naturally the last thing to be desired is an equipment-note default.

## WAR LOANS

The supply of short-term securities has been increased since the war in the form of one-, two-, and five-year borrowings of Canada, and countries in Europe and South America. Including the Anglo-French loan there has been created of such securities nearly \$1,000,000,000 in the past twelve months. The Dominion of Canada notes have had a good market and such other issues as Swiss Government 5's, Swedish 6's, and the three issues of Republic of Argentina notes have gone well. Italian one-year 6 per cent. notes were mostly all placed with bankers. It may be said that the government note is primarily a bankers' investment. The Anglo-French 5's were probably 85 per cent. placed with banks and with manufacturing concerns that were profiting from the war. How many of the original underwriters intend carrying the notes to maturity in 1920 it is difficult to say. That will depend on the fortunes of war. Certain it is that if the practise inaugurated by the Du Pont Powder Company of declaring dividend in the bonds is very generally carried out present holders of the loan 5's will face a considerable depreciation. And the general impression seems to be that other disbursements similar to that made in February will take place. The bonds have recently been selling on a 6½ per cent. yield basis.

## II. INVESTORS' QUERIES AND ANSWERS

### No. 718. WESTERN MORTGAGES THIRTY YEARS AGO AND NOW

Twenty or thirty years ago a great many people lost money in Western mortgages. I would like to know if you can explain the causes, and whether, in your opinion, conditions have changed so as to make such investments safe, if made through a reputable banking firm. I have a few bonds of public utility corporations. Recently I have seen a number of notices of reorganizations of different corporations, and I have become uneasy about my investments. They are nearly all long term bonds, and I fear there is a risk of conditions changing before they mature in such a way as to affect their value. If I could sell part of them, I think perhaps Western mortgages might suit me better on account of the fact that their shorter term lessens this risk of changed conditions. But I want safety of principal first.

It is possible to refer here only in a very brief and general way to the causes for the losses that were suffered in the early 90's on investments in Western mortgages. The principal cause was that the mortgage business had been tremendously overdone. Investors generally knew little in those days about how to judge underlying values in this field of investment, and in the East especially there had been so much indiscriminate buying of mortgages that many of the reputable loan agents became careless, while scores of unscrupulous adventurers were tempted into the business. The result was a condition which precluded even slight resistance to the financial panic that came along in 1893. There was a great scramble to withdraw funds from the West, accompanied by a pretty general collapse of land values, and, of course, disaster followed, not only for the lenders, but also for the borrowers.

But conditions have changed to such an extent as to make it difficult to conceive of a repetition of widespread disaster in this field of investment. Land values have been stabilized, and the development of mortgage banking along scientific lines may be said to have been both the cause and effect of the growth of a highly discriminating class of investors in mortgages during the last few years. Among the mortgage bankers of recognized standing nowadays, one finds a very high average sense of responsibility toward both lenders and borrowers, and it is rare that, even in cases of difficulty—which are, of course, bound to arise occasionally in spite of all the precautions observed—satisfactory adjustment is not found possible ultimately.

This is to say that if you were to start right with the selection of a trustworthy and experienced banker, you could very confidently enter the field of mortgage investment. But in circumstances like those to which you refer, we believe it would be prudent to subject your holdings of utility bonds to careful analysis before making the change suggested. It is quite possible that your uneasiness may be wholly without justification. Taking the public-utility field as a whole, reorganization and capital readjustment has not been frequent,—in fact, it is an investment field in which this kind of risk has been extremely small. Moreover, it is quite likely that even if, with all the facts before you, it still seemed desirable to make the change, you might find that by waiting a while it could be made on somewhat more advantageous terms.

### No. 719. BUYING STOCKS FOR INCOME

I have been considering the question of investing in high-grade railroad stocks. My attention has been called to the fact that even the best of such issues fluctuate considerably in market value from time to time, and I have wondered whether it would not be possible for me to take advantage of these fluctuations,—to buy when prices are comparatively low and to sell when they are comparatively high, and thus make an additional yearly income. Is such a course advisable, or is it more advisable to purchase such stocks to hold for income return only?

For the average investor, with neither the time nor the proper facilities for keeping in touch with developments in the affairs of the companies whose securities he holds, or for studying and interpreting the multitude of extraneous developments which influence the course of prices in the market as a whole, we think it unquestionably the wisest thing to buy such stocks to hold for income return alone. We mean that we believe this should be the underlying purpose in making such investments. It is so difficult even for the shrewd traders to judge accurately the times when the active stocks are standing at their lowest or highest levels, that the undertaking becomes practically an impossibility for the man who has other affairs to attend to.

### No. 720. SIX PER CENT MUNICIPALS

Can you recommend a few good municipal bonds yielding 6 per cent. interest?

The fact that municipal bonds, as a class, and especially those offered at the higher rates of interest, are handled privately by the specialists in such investments, and seldom become known in the general market, makes it difficult to recommend specific issues in this category. We think it would be best for you to communicate directly with some of the well-established and reputable dealers in municipal bonds, asking them what they now have on their lists to yield as much as 6 per cent. It is not very common to find municipal issues of the highest quality available at this rate of income, but at the same time it is not impossible to get such a rate with safety, particularly if the circumstances surrounding the investment do not call for a security of quick convertibility into cash.

### No. 721. CHICAGO, ROCK ISLAND & PACIFIC

What is the reorganization plan of the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific Railway? Do you think there are any possibilities in the stock at present prices?

As yet no definite plan of reorganization and capital readjustment has been worked out for the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific Railway. There seems to be a considerable difference of opinion as to how much new capital is going to be required to put the property on its feet and this question is, of course, the important one which will determine in the end many of the essential terms of the readjustment plan. It is possible merely to suggest at this time that it appears to be a practical certainty that any reorganization plan must call for a cash assessment on the old Rock Island Railway stock. This assessment, however, will probably not be as large as was once thought necessary.